The Nation.

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The Week.

The Sound-Money Democrats of Ohio will follow the example set by their brethren in Michigan, Iowa, and Kentucky. The State central committee of the National Democracy held a meeting on Thursday, and appointed a convention at Columbus next month to nominate a full State ticket. The committee were unanimous in this decision, and it will be heartily endorsed by Democrats of the same faith throughout the country. A standard ought to be raised in every State where an election is to be held which will rally voters who cannot accept the platform of either Republicans or Bryanites. The National Democrats of Ohio can "stand up and be counted" for a State ticket, with perfect assurance that such action will prove for the public good. As regards legislative tickets, the question in each district will be one for the independent voter to decide according to local conditions, and it may be taken for granted that he will nowhere contribute to the election to the Senate of a man so bitterly opposed to the sound-money cause as must be any Senator who should be chosen by a Bryanite Legislature.

The Iowa campaign has already progressed far enough to show that successful fusion between the Bryan Democrats and the Populists is impossible. It was much against their will that a large proportion of the Populists throughout the country supported the Democratic Presidential ticket last year, and a significant number refused to swallow Sewall, 15,181 ballots being cast for Bryan and Watson in Massachusetts, for example, as against 90,530 for Bryan and Sewall. The "Middle-of-the-Road" men of 1896 have received accessions in 1897, and in Iowa five of the eleven members of the Populist State central committee have declared against supporting the fusion ticket put in the field a few weeks ago by the Bryan Democrats, the Silver Republicans, and the Populists, who held conventions at the same time. These leaders evidently find much following among the rank and file, for we observe that in two Populist county conventions held in one day recently there were splits on the question of fusion, a large majority in one case opposing any further union with the Bryan Democrats. Only a few States hold elections this year, so that the sentiment of the Populists regarding fusion cannot be generally expressed; but there is no doubt that like causes must produce like results everywhere in the Congressional elections of next year. The Chicago platform never satisfied the thoroughgoing Populist; free coinage at 16 to 1 was well enough in his view, but it was a mere trifle compared with what he really wanted in the way of "financial reform." Moreover, the honest member of this party has no more faith in Democracy than in Republicanism, and is as loath to boost into office one set of politicians as the other. The attempt of the fusionists to stay the stampede in Iowa does not succeed because, when they warn the come-outers that such action will help the Republican party, the "Middle-of-the-Road" men reply that the other course will help the Democratic, and they would as soon assist one of these equally objectionable organizations as the other. It is already evident that the fusion game can never again be played on so large and successful a scale as in the national canvass of last year.

The election in Tennessee on Thursday was a fresh illustration of the difficulty so often experienced in interesting voters in what are really the most important of all questions—as to the kind of constitution under which they shall live. For more than a quarter of a century that State has gone on under a constitution which was framed in the stormy times of the reconstruction period, and which has come to be the shelter of gross abuses. The necessity of radical changes has been recognized by progressive citizens for years, but long agitation was required before the Legislature could be induced even to submit to the people the question whether a convention should be called to frame a new constitution. Thursday was the time set for the decision, and the result shows that the advocates of reform had not appreciated the degree of inertia to be overcome in their conservative community, for the vote was the lightest polled in the State for a generation, and the proposition for a convention was overwhelmingly defeated.

The press was furnished last week with what purported to be literal extracts from the injunction against the striking miners obtained from the United States Court in West Virginia. According to these extracts the prohibitions were nearly as extensive as those of a mediæval statute against treason. The miners were enjoined from interfering "by word or deed" with the affairs of a coal company, and might as well have been forbidden altogether to imagine any mischief against it. But if we may depend upon the accuracy of a copy of the injunction which was published on Monday by the New York *Sun*, what the court orders Debs and his companions to refrain from is interference with the operation of a coal-mine by menaces, threats, and other intimidation directed against the miners employed therein, especially while they are going to or from the mine. There is no prohibition of meetings in the public highways; it is the paths and roads on the property of the coal company which are to be kept clear. There is no general injunction against trespassing, but a particular warning not to enter on the property of the coal company for the purpose of interfering with or intimidating its employees, or of holding meetings to induce them to quit their work. The injunction does not even forbid urging the miners to strike, but only the "unlawfully" inciting them to do so. While it is evident that the police ought to prevent all the acts enjoined without any action by the courts, it is equally evident that no natural or constitutional right is menaced by such an injunction as seems to have been actually issued.

Perhaps the most noteworthy thing about the coal-miners' strike is the orderly way in which it has been conducted. It is now more than a month old and involves thousands of miners in four or five States; yet, except for an occasional and isolated act of violence, the efforts of the leaders to keep the peace and respect public order have been remarkably successful. We doubt if so prolonged a strike, on so large a scale, ever before occurred in this country without producing more public disturbance—assaults and rioting. This is the more notable in that the strikers have had the open sympathy of the Governors of West Virginia and Illinois—Republicans both. It has been as good as intimated to the strikers that the military power of those States would be used against them only in case of dire necessity. But no such necessity has arisen, and everybody must hope it will not. The leaders of the men have learned the great lesson that public sympathy for them, however keen, will speedily be alienated by public disorder. This is a teaching of the events of the summer of 1894, in connection with the great railroad strike, which laboring men have apparently taken to heart. It is a great gain every way. Whether the strikers win or lose, they have, so far, managed their strike in the way to convince the public that they value the orderly administration of the law.

The latest Hawaiian rumors would seem incredible if any rumor about the

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foreign policy of the present administration could longer seem incredible. It appears most unlikely that, with a treaty of annexation pending, the President should decide to annex by the short and easy method of running up the flag; but the treaty of annexation itself appeared most unlikely, after what Mr. McKinley had said of it in public and private. The reasons alleged for declaring a "protectorate" at this time are preposterous; unless the American flag is hoisted, it is said, the islands will not be able to maintain themselves against Japan while awaiting the slow process of annexation by treaty. But Japan has formally and explicitly declared that she has no hostile designs upon Hawaii. The only question between them is a claim for indemnity arising out of the refusal to allow Japanese immigrants to land in Honolulu, and that question has been submitted to arbitration. If annexation by ship and gun and flag has been determined upon, it is only because the men whose personal interests are at stake have come to believe that annexation by treaty cannot be secured. They argue that the flag once up will never be pulled down, treaty or no treaty. All this is conjecture, of course, and there may be nothing whatever in the rumors. They would be dismissed as wildly improbable had not the vacillating conduct of our foreign affairs during the past five months prepared us to believe anything. "Nothing is impossible on Bunker Hill," said Webster; and nothing is impossible to a diplomacy which has tricked the Japanese Minister and written the Sherman despatch about the seals.

What dreadful people those Canadians are in the matter of tariffs, when they propose to collect duties on the provisions and outfit of miners going into their territory. Why don't they take pattern from us when they pass their tariff bills and allow $100 worth of such truck to come in free? An idea seems to prevail in some quarters that our will is law on this continent—an idea somewhat hastily thrown out by ex-Secretary Olney—and hence that Canada ought to square her ideas of protection to home industry by ours, or rather ought to abandon them altogether as regards gold-miners. The business men of Seattle seem to have this notion, and they want retaliation at once. But have we not retaliated sufficiently in the Dingley bill, by putting prohibitory duties on lumber, eggs, barley, fish, hay, and everything else we could think of to make the Canucks mad? It would be hard to see how we could do more. We might cut off the transit of Canadian goods in bond, but that would deprive our own railways of the business of carrying the goods. Great is protection, when you have it all your own way.

We have had occasion to refer before this to the unprecedented increase in this country's exports of manufactured goods. In the calendar year 1896, it will be remembered, the total of such exports showed an increase of $52,534,864 over 1895, or more than 25 per cent. The Bureau of Statistics has now compiled the record of manufactured exports for the twelve months ending June 30, 1897, comprising the fiscal year, and the record is even more remarkable. During these twelve months, aggregate exports of manufactured goods have risen to $276,357,861, against $228,571,178 in the same months of the year preceding, $183,595,743 in the fiscal year 1895, and only $151,102,376 in 1890. Moreover, this increase has been continuous throughout the last twelve months. During the six months beginning last January, manufactured exports increased nearly $23,000,000 over the same six months of 1896, and $50,000,000 over 1895. The importance of these growing exports of manufactures, during the fiscal year 1897, may be judged from the fact that, enormous as our shipment of cereals has been during the same twelve months, the manufactured exports exceeded the value of outgoing breadstuffs by $76,000,000, whereas in the corresponding period ending with June, 1892, breadstuffs exports ran beyond the shipment of manufactures by $141,000,000. In short, the manufactured exports of the fiscal year 1897 made up nearly 27 per cent. of the largest total export trade in the history of the United States.

Mr. Mulhall's review of the commerce of the last twenty years, which appears in the *Contemporary* for August, contains figures of stupendous magnitude. The year 1896 was, he says, the *annus mirabilis* of British trade, the value of exports and imports exceeding all previous records. Moreover, in spite of the alarm expressed concerning foreign competition, British trade amounted to 37 per cent. of that of the world, as compared with 36 per cent. in the year 1876. So far as values are concerned, the increase is not very striking. Taking the values of exports from the United Kingdom and of imports retained for consumption therein, their sum was in 1876 about £520,000,000, in 1886 only £506,000,000, and in 1896 nearly £625,000,000. But there has been an enormous cheapening of production and consequent fall in prices during these twenty years. If we consider quantities rather than values—and quantities are what we should look to in estimating the real wealth of a people—we find that the actual volume of this trade has increased 88 per cent. since 1876, or four times as much as population. In other words, had the prices of 1876 prevailed, the trade of 1896 would have been valued at £975,000,000 instead of two-thirds of that sum.

The Philadelphia *Ledger* learns that "the advocates of international bimetallism in Washington are much disturbed by the news from London that the British Government is not prepared at the present time to answer, favorably or unfavorably, the request that it should participate in an international conference to be called by the United States." The names of these disappointed persons are not given. Evidently they do not include any Bryanites of prominence, for the same paper says that the prospective failure of the negotiation gives the free-coinage men much pleasure. They must be very happily constituted if they can derive pleasure from anything just now. The whole world seems to be going against them. Senator Stewart has been roused from torpor by the recently published statistics of gold production by Mr. Preston, the Director of the Mint. The statistics he pronounces false and wicked. As to Preston's opinion that Mexico cannot pay the interest on her foreign debt if she maintains her silver standard, Stewart says that is all bosh, because Mexico pays the interest on her foreign debt with her products, and these products bring just as much gold in foreign countries as ever. Her coffee, her tobacco, her dyestuffs, her mahogany, and everything except her silver sell at as high prices as before. Yes, but she does not collect her taxes in coffee, tobacco, and dyestuffs, but in silver, and she pays the interest on her foreign debt with the proceeds of her taxes. Stewart naturally concludes that Preston is "recreant to his duty and an enemy of his country."

We presume that the bimetallists will indulge in some jubilation over the report of the minority of the British Royal Commission on Agriculture. Headed by Mr. Henry Chaplin, this minority declares that depression in agriculture is wholly due to the demonetization of silver; in proof of which they point out the particular severity of the depression in the United States. Of course the only remedy is the abandonment of the gold standard. It is somewhat unfortunate for Mr. Chaplin and his bimetallic friends, however, that their minority report was not filed a year or two ago. Coming as it now does on the heels of the 26 cents per bushel rise in wheat, the recovery of enterprise throughout our farming regions, and the daily sales of a good wheat crop by English farmers at equally high prices, the bimetallic report has a far-away sound which falls curiously on the ear.

Mr. Chaplin is, in fact, a very unlucky

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prophet, a fact which his associates on the Agricultural Commission ought to have remembered. In the early spring of 1879, this same acute observer unfolded to Parliament the true cause of the depression in English agriculture. It was not due then to silver demonetization—that is one of Mr. Chaplin's more recent fads. It was occasioned wholly by the abandonment of high protective tariffs on grain, both by Great Britain and by its grain-producing neighbors. Until these high taxes were restored, Mr. Chaplin proceeded, low prices for wheat would rule. But the time for uttering this prophecy was as ill chosen in 1879 as in 1897. Within eight months of Mr. Chaplin's analysis of the situation, wheat had advanced some 50 cents a bushel in exporting countries, and England was only too happy, demonetization or no demonetization, to pay the price. It was an unforeseen deficiency, Mr. Chaplin's friends will answer, which turned the grain markets at the moment of his prophecies. Yes; the bimetallist is very willing to talk of unforeseen deficiencies in 1879 and 1897; but does anybody ever hear him speak of the huge unforeseen surplus product of 1878 and 1894?

It appears to have been assumed all along that England would join in a bimetallic conference on the basis of restoring the free coinage of silver in India and carrying a certain amount of that metal in the Bank's reserves. The authority for this assumption was the *National Review*, which, it now appears, was not charged with the task of declaring the policy of the Salisbury ministry. That task was assigned to Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, who said, when his opinion was asked, that her Majesty's Government could not give a decisive answer till October, because it was necessary to consult the Government of India on the subject. What shall we say to that? Is it not a subterfuge? Do we not know that England has absolute power over India and can change her coinage system every day in the week if she likes? What nonsense, then, to talk about waiting till October! How absurd to talk about consulting the Government of India! The Government of India, to all intents and purposes, is situated in Downing Street. Evidently there is a deep-laid scheme here, for we find that France immediately shows signs of weakness, and asks to be "counted out" altogether unless England joins. Meanwhile, our special commissioners are going to try their luck at Berlin and St. Petersburg, with dubious prospects in both.

The replies of the British colonies to Mr. Chamberlain's request for information as to the extent to which foreign imports are displacing those from England are in the usual vein of such communications. The foreigners are "making steady inroads." The English merchants do not consult the taste of their customers. German and American competitors furnish cheaper goods of improved finish, and threaten to capture the entire trade in certain articles. Of course these replies are just what Mr. Chamberlain wanted in order to lay the foundation for his imperial customs union, but Sir Wilfrid Laurier and Mr. Reid, the Premier of New South Wales, have upset the scheme. As a matter of fact these "foreign inroads" are a mere figment of the imagination. The gross returns of British trade prove that it is well maintained with her own colonies as well as with much of the rest of the world. Indeed, her colonial trade exhibits in some lines a wonderful development. Tea is associated in our minds with China, but a correspondent of the London *Times* calls attention to the prodigious advances that have taken place in the cultivation of the tea plant in the British possessions. So recently as 1868 China supplied England with about 100,000,000 pounds, while India sent 7,000,000 pounds. In 1896 England imported 227,000,000 pounds of tea, of which 24,000,000 pounds came from China, and the rest from India and Ceylon. This does not indicate that England's colonial trade is in a state of decay.

The Queen's speech proroguing Parliament makes no mention of the Bering Sea question, the Hawaiian question, the bimetallic conference, the Alaska boundary, the Klondike mines, the Hon. John W. Foster, the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, Senator Wolcott, or of the United States as a whole. It refers to Greece, Turkey, Belgium, Germany, China, and King Menelek. Is not this an intentional slight? May it not be the British way of answering the "shirt-sleeves despatch"? Should it not be considered a *casus belli*? We think that an explanation should be demanded at once, and that a time limit should be put upon the answer. Lord Salisbury has an exasperating way of dilly-dallying about matters involving our dignity. Ex-Secretary Olney can tell something about that. Salisbury should be asked whether the omission of all reference to the United States in the Queen's speech was intended as an affront. If he says that it was, or if he refuses to answer, then let war be declared as soon as the Indiana can be got out of the Halifax dry-dock. We are glad to see that Secretary Sherman, old as he is, stands ready, like Sir Peter Teazle, for every emergency. He is quoted in one morning paper as saying that "England quarrels oftener than she fights." That is so much like the shirt-sleeves despatch that its authenticity can hardly be doubted. The same newspaper quotes Mr. Foster as saying that he did not write the shirt-sleeves despatch and did not connive at its publication. Really our foreign affairs are getting into a deplorable state, and we see no way to rehabilitate them but by a little blood-letting. If the Hon. Theodore Roosevelt were Secretary of State, he would find the proper remedy.

The capture of Abu Hammed by the Anglo-Egyptian expedition completes another stage of the march to Khartum. The movement is slow but sure, and the overthrow of the Khalifa can be counted upon as absolutely certain. If it is of any use to "avenge Gordon," he will be avenged in due time. What is of use is the restoration of the Sudan to the influences of civilization, and the breaking of a tyranny, one of the most cruel and blighting that the world has ever known. Every step taken by the expeditionary force up the Nile is an additional reason why England should not abandon Egypt, and the public opinion of Europe will sustain her in retaining her hold upon it even though jealousy may linger in France and Germany. Abu Hammed is about equidistant with Khartum from the mouth of the Atbara, and controls a long stretch of navigable water.

Spain is still able to borrow money, as is shown by the success of her recent Philippine loan, subscribed for five times over. But the rebellion, insurrection, or whatever it is to be called, in the Philippine Islands drags along as discouragingly as does the Cuban revolt. An instructive article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for July. 15, by M. Charles Benoist, lets in a great deal of light upon the Philippine difficulty, and upon Spanish politics in general. The great part still played in Spanish government by ecclesiastics is suggested by two incidents: four monks sitting in the Prime Minister's ante-chamber, and announcing that they had been invited by Cánovas to "talk over the political situation"; and a bishop entering the palace, summoned by the Queen, while grandees, generals, and ladies of honor knelt before him. It is such things, as M. Benoist says, that make one feel that the real Spain is still living in the sixteenth century. As far as foreign policy is concerned, this was admitted by a distinguished public man with whom the writer talked. "Without a break," said he, "we have for three hundred years tried to govern our colonies with monks and soldiers." This suggests the radical difficulty in all the talk about applying "reforms" to Cuba. The old Spanish idea of colonial government must first be reformed itself, and there are few signs that it has been. The condition of affairs both in Cuba and in the Philippines gives too much color to the depressing conclusion of M. Benoist: "The Spaniards have always known better how to fight and to die than to live and organize."

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THE LOW PETITION.

The astonishing figures representing the number of signatures to the Low petition prove that, whatever may be the result of the coming election, the nominations for Mayor of New York are not likely to be managed in the future as they have been in the past. The body of voters demanding the nomination of Mr. Low, already reaching about 70,000, is as large as the genuine membership of the Republican machine, if not of Tammany Hall, while none of the smaller organizations can be mentioned in the same breath with it. We have always expressed the conviction that it would have this success, and indeed we may go further and say that for New York its ultimate triumph, as things stand, is as necessary as was the defeat of Bryan last year for the country at large. For everybody who has anything to lose, or cares about civilization, the election of a Platt Mayor, or of a Sheehan-Croker Mayor, or of a Platt-Sheehan-Croker Mayor, with a term of four years, in the commercial capital and principal city of the United States, would be an almost unendurable calamity. It would mean here a return for four years, if not longer, to barbarism, plunder, spoils, and blackmail, and at Albany a continuance of the carnival of deals, jobs, and steals, plunging the city continually into worse and worse disorder. But the Low movement, even at its present stage, is an assurance that no such future is before us. Every thousand signatures added to his petition makes it more and more impossible for his enemies to play the game they originally had intended. The Low petition is a loud and solemn warning that the voters of the city demand a man of established character and capacity, unfettered by pledges, and that, no matter who is put up, they will allow no other sort of man to be elected.

In this respect it differs from all similar previous movements. The movement against Tweed, for instance, was designed to eject a corrupt ring from power; the movement against the New Tammany had the same object in view. In neither case was the fact attended to that the nominating machinery left in existence would, if let alone, produce the old evils over again. But the Low petition represents a movement against the nominating machinery itself. It is a volunteer popular movement, not merely for a particular man, but to prevent the nomination by the machines of the type of man they want. It is a popular nomination, without a machine, of a candidate without a pledge—that is, it is the accomplishment under our eyes of that very impossible, unattainable thing which we have insisted, year in and year out, must be attained, if republican institutions were not to perish.

That a genuine popular nomination of this sort, in advance of any action by any regular political body, could be accomplished by a midsummer volunteer movement, is a phenomenon so novel in the history of New York and the country that we may be sure that it is significant of something much more important than the drift of a particular contest. Some critics can find in it only an exceptional effort made for an exceptional crisis—the election of the first Mayor under the charter of the enlarged city; but, unless we are mistaken, there is something in it more important than this—the undermining, in its citadel, of a rotten and outworn nominating system.

We have no word in our political vocabulary which corresponds to the old English "rotten borough," because we have not the thing. But we have in our nominating system a very similar product of corruption, for which we have invented the excellent word machine. Nominations are nominally made by a popularly chosen body known as a convention, but this convention is itself chosen in reality by small organized bodies of workers, who live in some way at the public expense, and whose paymaster, when they are not actually in office, is the boss, or treasurer of the whole corporation. In New York, and in Pennsylvania, and indeed in every rich, powerful community having a large city in it, he draws his funds either from blackmail or from the "voluntary contributions" of those who have a lively sense of gratitude for benefits which they expect him to confer, or dread of evils which they fear he may, if not appeased, inflict. There is nothing new, of course, in this description; what is new is that we are beginning to see clearly that it is chiefly through nominations to office that this machine exerts its power. Formerly the machine had great power, once in control, through the federal and State civil service; but this has been in great measure lost. The other day, when Mr. Bidwell was appointed Collector of this port, a tremendous to-do was made over it by Platt, because twenty years ago the collectorship was one of the keys to the control of the machine; but in reality most of the Collector's political power has vanished, through the application of civil-service reform to the custom-house. So when Black undertook to get hold of the State civil service, the plot was in a great measure defeated by the very heads of departments, who in former days would have been his tools. To-day the machine must continue in power through its control of elective offices, or it must disappear as a factor in politics.

We have become of late years so accustomed to machine nominations that we can hardly conceive of any other system. Yet the signs are many that the system is doomed, and the Low petition is one of them. That the system must disappear we have always believed, because it cannot be purified, and it is incompatible with free government. A machine with a boss at its head tends to absolutism and tyranny and the destruction of free speech and free thought in our system as inevitably as the old English rotten boroughs tended to produce the same results in the English parliamentary system a hundred years ago. All attempts to ameliorate it by exhortation of citizens to "attend the primaries," or by legislation to prevent corruption in the primaries, have broken down, and yet there is nothing more certain than that without good nominations to elective offices the whole government will ultimately become as rotten as the machines which call it into existence. No government can in the long run be any better than the men who carry it on; and our crying problem is how to get good men put up for election.

Our system of nominations, originally introduced as a democratic reform, has become in process of time essentially corrupt and tyrannical, leading to the domination of such creatures as Platt, Quay, and Gorman in the most intelligent and civilized communities in the country, and to such extraordinary phenomena as the capture of the whole machinery of a great national party in the interest of a sordid plot. Unless we are wrong in believing the United States to be a genuinely democratic country, this rotten system must be superseded by some new one that will give free play to the forces which underlie our civilization, and which on the whole make for improvement. What the new system will be, it is, of course, impossible to predict, but the Low petition shows one avenue of escape from machine rule, which will be hailed with delight.

HOW THEY DO IT IN FRANCE.

France, as protectionists of the classical school such as Carey and Greeley used to proclaim, was the first of European states to illustrate the theory of protection in a systematic manner. The legislation of Colbert was so well conceived as to furnish the basis of most subsequent customs acts; and while the French have had occasional lapses into something like free trade, they have as a rule maintained a protectionist policy. From the time when M. Thiers came in as President of the newly formed republic, this policy has prevailed in France without interruption and with increased intensity. No such revulsions have taken place there as occurred in this country in 1894, and we naturally turn to France for examples of the most perfect and complete development of protection so far produced. Such an example is furnished in the passage of the so-called *cadenas* (or padlock) bill.

This law provides that when any bill is presented by the Government to in-

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crease the duty on corn, wine, cattle, or fresh meat, a decree shall be made applying the duty from the very next day. It further provides that the proceeds of such supplementary duties shall not become the property of the Treasury until the law has been enacted. If it fails to pass, the extra duties shall be returned to the importer who has paid them. What disposition the importer shall make of them after he gets them is not prescribed. He may keep them in his own pocket, or turn them over to the merchant who bought of him; but it is not probable that the consumer would get back the increased price that he paid.

This act has been criticised by such journals as the *Temps*, but the criticism is not important from the protectionist point of view. The *Temps* urges that whenever an increase of taxes is contemplated by the Government, it implies that this increase has been solicited by interested parties. The members of the Government are therefore in position to take advantage, and to allow interested parties to take advantage, of a decision to raise duties. This decision being immediately operative, those who know of its existence before it is announced to the public may make use of their knowledge by speculating for a rise in prices. The possibility of such demoralizing practices the *Temps* regards as constituting a grave objection to the law. In its judgment the increase of a duty should be the subject of open, careful, and prolonged discussion by the Chambers. The *cadenas* law it declares to be the *coup d'état* applied to customs administration.

The experience through which we have recently passed in this country shows that the *Temps* is misled by what Mr. Bagehot used to call the "literary theory" of government. We have no *cadenas*, but we have seen that the recent changes in our duties have not been arrived at as the result of open discussion in Congress. It would be hardly incorrect to say that they were not discussed at all in the House of Representatives, and the discussion in the Senate is not believed to have really had any influence on the rates as finally determined. In fact, the very contingencies regarded as deplorable by the *Temps* are thought to have been realized here. Members of the Legislature have been solicited by interested parties to establish certain increased duties, and the decision to adopt these duties has been reached secretly, so far as the public and even the greater part of the members of Congress are concerned. The evils of which the *Temps* complains are evidently not peculiar to such acts as the *cadenas*.

The proper contrast to be drawn is between the French plan and that suggested by Mr. Dingley of making the tariff retroactive. Under the French system a tariff goes into effect as soon as it is brought forward by the Government, and if the Government does not pass its bill the duties collected under it are refunded. There would be no "anticipatory importations" except by those importers who felt sure that a tariff was to be passed, and who knew what it was to be. Under the rejected Dingley plan, the importers would get their goods through the custom-house and sell them before the tariff was enacted, and then the Government would collect its duties as best it could. From a protectionist point of view there seems little question as to which plan is the most desirable. Let the "parties interested" agree with the leaders in Congress upon a satisfactory tariff, and then let the Treasury collect these rates from the very day the tariff is introduced. By this plan the Government would get more revenue, while the "parties interested," it is safe to say, would look out for themselves.

Considered as a means of retaliation, the *cadenas* law also compares favorably with the Dingley act. Under that act the President of the United States may enter into negotiations with countries exporting argols, wines, and spirits for "equivalent concessions" in the matter of duties, the concessions on our part being rather strictly limited. So the President is empowered to "secure reciprocal trade," by taking tea, coffee, and tonka beans off the free list when imported from countries that show a reluctance to reciprocate. But the powers of the French Government to raise duties are quite unrestricted, and under the new law they can be very promptly exercised. So far as immediate results are concerned, it is intimated that Mr. McKinley may be able to make some concessions to France which will relieve that country from the necessity of applying the *cadenas* law against us.

THE ASSASSINATION OF CÁNOVAS.

The first question which everybody is asking, in connection with the shocking news of the assassination of the Spanish Prime Minister, is, What will be the effect on the political situation in Spain? What, above all, will be the effect on Spanish international relations—on the Cuban rebellion, on the Philippine revolt? Those who know most about Spanish politics are most reserved in making predictions of any kind; but they are all agreed that the consequences of Cánovas's dastardly taking-off are certain to be grave, and may easily amount to a national disaster.

To begin with, Cánovas was the only man who could hold the Spanish Conservative party together. Even he could not do it perfectly. For some time there have been mutterings against his leadership, and Francisco Silvela, at the head of a small Conservative following, has been in open revolt. No one is in sight able to unite in his person the qualities which gave Cánovas his prestige. He had, in the first place, a peculiar claim to the confidence of the royal family, the restoration of the Bourbons in 1874 having been mainly his work. Thus he stood in an unusual way for the idea of stable government, which has come in Spain, on the confession of even Castelar, to be connected with the monarchy. In addition, Cánovas was a man of distinguished ability and high personal gifts. As an historian he had a deserved repute. As a philosophical writer on politics, and as a friend and patron of letters, he was a prominent figure in the literary life of contemporary Spain. His oratory was trenchant and precise beyond the use and wont of Spanish statesmen, who, for the most part, delight to disport themselves on the windy plains of Troy. Cánovas had thus an extraordinary personal and political authority, to which, as we say, no other Conservative public man—and no Liberal leader, not even Sagasta—can pretend.

Whether he was not, for his fame, happy in the opportunity of his death may be a subject hereafter debated. The gravity, the well-nigh desperation, of Spanish affairs, have been masked from the world by the indomitable energy and high spirit with which Cánovas has faced his thickening difficulties. His task has been one to daunt any heart but the stoutest. The drain and depression of fruitless war in Cuba and the Philippines have been added to discontent at home, to anarchist outrages and conspiracies, and, latterly, to the threat of another Carlist rising. The financial situation of the country has become critical in the extreme. If the statement of the British Foreign Office just given out is correct—and it cannot be very wide of the truth—the interest on the Spanish national debt now swallows up considerably more than half the national revenue. It seemed impossible, we say, for any man to stand up against such a beating storm of public peril, and Cánovas's assassination may have saved his name from being associated hereafter with a great national catastrophe instead of simply with a horrible crime.

Whatever political readjustment may follow in the Spanish government, it seems certain that the prosecution of the colonial wars will be greatly relaxed. Sagasta has openly opposed the policy of blood and iron in Cuba. So has Silvela; so did, the other day, Señor Moret. Even under Cánovas there had been an abatement of the fierce energy with which the suppression of the Cuban rebellion was at first undertaken. A different, a milder policy may be looked for; negotiations for Cuban independence may possibly be admitted after a time. If there were any way of retir-

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ing without apparent disgrace, there can be little doubt that Spanish statesmen would eagerly adopt it. But all such speculations are of small account. When we see all calculations upset by such a bolt from the blue as the assassination of Cánovas, we are led to put less faith than ever in political prophecy.

But there is one aspect of the matter about which there can be no doubt. The mania for murdering public men is on the increase. Assassination as a political remedy is coming to be a favorite resort of desperate revolutionists or unbalanced minds. Cánovas was shot down not because he was Cánovas, but because he was Prime Minister of Spain. And there seems to be no efficient way of protecting public men against such dangers. The shrewdest detectives are at last eluded, the most vigilant police evaded. Precautions should, of course, be redoubled; but they will not insure the personal safety of conspicuous statesmen, who cannot all of them lead the life of the Czar of Russia. Public office of the higher grades will for some time at least have to be classed among the extra-hazardous callings.

But if political assassinations cannot be prevented, they can be shown to be futile and so effectively discredited and discouraged. They can be met with serenity, such as the President of the French Chamber displayed when the Anarchist bomb was flung from the gallery. The lurking reptiles can be shown that their fangs may strike but cannot frighten; that they may threaten but cannot disorganize society. Those responsible for the administration of law must make it clear that they are not to be swerved one inch from their course by panic fear. The situation undoubtedly calls for a new and high form of civic courage. Kings and presidents and prime ministers will have to cultivate the jaunty coolness shown by King Humbert, who simply shrugged his shoulders at the recent attempt to assassinate him, remarking that it was merely "one of the incidents of his profession." With civilization nerving itself against such shocks and determining to go on its way regardless of them; with men in conspicuous stations taking calm account of the new risk, the new-style political agitators by means of bomb and knife will at last get tired of going to death for nothing, and of dashing themselves in vain against a society immovably based on law and order.

THE INTERVIEW AS LITERATURE.

In the preface to his latest volume of 'Portraits Intimes,' which consist, as is well known, of "walks" and "evenings" and "dinners" with various celebrities, M. Adolphe Brisson makes a plea for the interview as a legitimate literary form. He admits its novelty. He is dimly aware of its American origin—though his historical account of its beginnings in the attempt of "M. Joseph Cullagh," "a convinced deist," to cover "M. Robert Ingersall" with confusion, has a strangely foreign air. But new and crude though the interview be, out of the Nazareth of American newspaperdom though it come, M. Brisson yet maintains that it deserves, or may deserve when perfected, to rank as a "genre littéraire." At any rate, as he says, in spite of all objections and opposition, the interview goes on its way; it has entered into our manners; it cannot be ignored; besides its practical utility, it has some striking qualities, even merits, from the point of view of literature.

In his analysis of the interview and the interviewer, M. Brisson has many things to say that show how the French practice is assimilated to the American; some that indicate how much the French have yet to learn from us in this art. Everybody will recognize, for example, the kind of interview which he describes as a "duel" between a reporter and a man unwilling to be interviewed. In this species, the adversaries take each other's measure, make feints with their swords (or pencils), and try to deceive each other. But this simply puts the interviewer on his mettle; if his victim will not speak, it merely imposes the duty to gather the truth from his gesture and expression, to guess at what is left unsaid, to surprise the secret thought. M. Brisson only hints at this in passing, and gives no examples. They could be supplied in abundance by any American. Senator Wolcott will say nothing, but his "smile" is a sufficient proof to the astute correspondent that England is about to abandon the gold standard. Platt refuses to be interviewed, but he looked greatly "depressed" as he came away from the Mayor's room, Governor's chamber, or White House, as the case may be, and the inference is plain that his man is not going to get it. These are but samples of the skill of the American interviewer in breaking down the fence of his adversary in the interview which is a duel. They do not do these things better in France.

The willing interview is pictured to the life by our Frenchman. We cannot do better than quote his account of it—particularly as it relates to an interview with a literary man. The literary interview has been having a great run in America, and some very pretty things have been done in that line. The method is accurately described by M. Brisson:

> "I remember a call I had to make upon one of our most charming writers. He had given me an appointment in the morning. When I arrived everything was ready. . . . He had taken the pains to write out for me a sketch of his life; he had added to it a list of his principal works, and of criticisms of them, generally favorable, taken from the leading reviews. Several flattering letters from Lamartine and Victor Hugo, some photographs, two or three unpublished pages, were included in the bundle which he forced upon me. And when I entered, as when I came away, he delivered himself of some exquisite phrases, which he took care to utter slowly, so as the better to engrave them on my memory, etc."

The prepared interview M. Brisson seems not to know. Chauncey M. Depew ought to explain it to him on his next trip abroad. It consists, as every cultivated American knows, in typewritten question and answer, all worked out by the person interviewed, and passed out entire to the lucky interviewer. It is a pity that M. Brisson is not acquainted with this form of the interview, as it would immensely strengthen his argument that it deserves a place in literature. In few other writings is there discernible so fine a play of the imagination. The information, the shrewdness, the intimate acquaintance with European politics attributed to the interviewer, in questions he did not ask, but which were printed as if he did, have often brought a smile to the face of the most melancholy reporter. There is deep literary art in this. So there is in the phrases scattered up and down the prepared interview—"Mr. Depew was reluctant to answer this question"; "Mr. Depew hesitated before replying"; "Mr. Depew reflected several minutes before saying," etc. When we know that all these realistic touches were dictated to Mr. Depew's stenographer, and clicked off on Mr. Depew's typewriter, our respect for the prepared interview, as a literary production, cannot but be greatly heightened.

Where our French authority will seem to experienced Americans weakest is in his account of the qualities which go to make up the successful interviewer. He intimates that a good fund of general knowledge is well-nigh indispensable. He even maintains that the interviewer must have "a certain delicacy which will suggest to him how far he may fairly go in his revelations, and what limits are imposed upon him by discretion." It is sufficient to say that either of these rules would put an end to nine-tenths of the interviewing in American newspapers; therefore, they cannot be necessary. M. Brisson is of the opinion that the interviewer is born, not made; this may be a sly way of allying the interview with poetry; but his contention that no man is fit to interview before he is twenty-five, or after he is fifty, shows a narrow horizon. After this, it is quite needless to follow him into his discussions of the interviewer's careful preparation for his work, his courtesy, his good faith, and other qualities which we know to be wholly unnecessary in practice. All that may do very well for literature; but if you make the interview literary in that sense, you run a great risk of making it altogether cease to be the American interview as we know it.

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WITH THE RUSH TO THE KLONDIKE.

STEAMER QUEEN, June 27, 1897.

When the excursion steamer *Queen* left Seattle and Victoria on the twenty-third of this month, besides the usual collection of tourists who had come to make the Alaska trip, she had on board another crowd of a very different kind. A few days earlier the tale had gone out to the world of the return of miners with great quantities of gold from the Klondike region in the far north of British America, and the news had created widespread excitement. The "rush" began at once, not only because thousands of people wish to be among the first to arrive in the new Eldorado, but also because they well know that the time before the beginning of the next Arctic winter is short enough in which to traverse the immense distance that separates them from their promised land. Naturally they turned first to the usual means of transportation that would bring them nearest to their goal. With the whole Pacific Coast, not to speak of other places, thrilling with the excitement, and with wiseacres talking of discoveries to surpass those of 1849, the number of applicants for passages far exceeded the regular supply, so that many extra boats have been hired, there being at least five of them due within a week after ours.

The easiest, if the longest, way of getting to the Klondike is by ocean steamer to St. Michael's Island in Bering Sea, and thence, in a smaller boat, up the Yukon River. Many have already gone in this manner, yet it has serious drawbacks. Although we are still in June, the Yukon, which at present is too low for good navigation, freezes so early that it is by no means sure that those who start now can reach their remote destination without being caught in the ice and forced to winter on the boat. Then, too, the transportation companies do not allow miners to bring up their food with them, thereby forcing them to buy at the companies' stores at any price. The other, much shorter, routes are from points on the coast of southeast Alaska to the lakes and rivers that flow into the upper waters of the Yukon. Of these routes the best known is via Dyea, a trading-post boasting of a grocery-store and a post-office, a thousand and twenty-five miles by sea from Victoria, at the head of an inlet called the Lynn Canal. The trail from Dyea to the nearest lake is only twenty-seven miles, but part of it is over a mountain, and is so difficult that it is impassable even to pack-horses. When we remember, accordingly, that, besides his "kit," each man should carry provisions to last him for the greater part of a year, we can see that even this short distance is no trifling obstacle. Nor is the long journey, in small boats made on the spot, a thing to be lightly undertaken.

Of course, every place on the *Queen* was filled; the tourists, much the ordinary assemblage, looking with interest and wonder, a certain admiration and some pity, on their two hundred or so unexpected companions. These were mostly Americans, with a number of Canadians and Englishmen, as well as a few of other nationalities. There were, indeed, many sorts and conditions of men: veteran miners, who had prospected and mined for years in more than one State of the Union, and pale shop clerks, vainly trying, with the aid of flannel shirts, broad-brimmed felt hats, and pipes, not to have the stamp of the "tenderfoot." There were lawyers and doctors, a candidate on the Populist ticket at Tacoma last autumn, two Yale graduates, a prize-fighter known as "The Montana Kid," an ex-judge, and an ex-Governor of a Territory. There were men with gray beards, mere boys, and even a few women, not mostly of the best kind; there were many with attractive if rough faces, and here and there one who looked as if he had seen the inside of a jail; but all were now full of the same thought, the same desire to rush to the gold fields, the same dreams of fabulous wealth. Each one had, on an average, nearly a ton of baggage, with whatever money he could scrape up, as he knew that he was bound for a country that produces nothing but gold, and where all the necessaries of life may be expected to be at famine prices. Each needed, besides his camping outfit, mining tools, tools for cutting wood and for other purposes, clothing to stand a winter where the thermometer goes down to seventy degrees below zero, a gun and ammunition to shoot game, and food for about a year, if he were prudent, as those who leave now may, in case of accident, be frozen up for many months before reaching inhabited territory. If a man's provisions give out, what can save him, if anything, but the charity of others? And Heaven help him in a region where every one has to guard against the danger of starvation.

Some, of course, were much more fully provided than the rest, thanks to greater wisdom and experience or to longer purses. Some, undoubtedly, are running terrible risks, even if they are modest in their desires, and merely intend to hire themselves out as day laborers, at any rate at first, and thus will not be absolutely obliged after their arrival to have independent means of support. The most favorably situated are those with experience who have banded together in parties of from two to twenty, under some good leader, and have had the means to supply themselves with whatever is necessary to guard against all contingencies. Even they spoke seriously enough of the business on hand, and of the hardships and disappointments that must await the majority of the seekers.

A question much discussed was the probability of having to pay customs duties. The Klondike River and adjacent streams, where the richest "strikes" have been made, are situated in British territory, though near to the Alaska boundary. Already there are mounted police on the spot to keep order, and the Canadian newspapers, spurred by jealousy at the great impetus the "rush" is giving to the trade of certain American cities, notably Seattle, are clamorous for customs officers to collect duties which should not only benefit the Canadian revenue, but, it is hoped, induce future miners to buy their outfits in Victoria and Vancouver. The Dominion Government probably will act as soon as possible, but it is hard to see where some of the present immigrants are to get the money from if they have to pay much, for they are certainly not all provided with superfluous funds. It is to be feared, too, that these latest gold discoveries may lead to political complications. When more gold is found on the Alaska side of the frontier, as in time there probably will be, and a large mining population, composed chiefly of Americans, is scattered through this distant and difficult region, it is not going to be perfectly easy to police the territory or make boundary lines respected. More serious is the fact that the nearest entrances to this Canadian country are through land now held by the United States, but claimed by Great Britain. The increased importance of just such places as the heads of the Lynn Canal will not facilitate the settlement of the Alaska boundary controversy.

Our journey from Victoria to Dyea passed without any particular incident till at about twelve on the third day we reached our destination—three or four houses at the end of a bay, walled in by lofty mountains with steep, wooded sides and snowy tops. The prospect looked blank enough for those who were to land. It was not so much that the wind was high and the sea rough, as because the water was too shallow to permit the *Queen*, which was here for the first time, to get far up; so the miners, with their almost two hundred tons of goods, would have to be put on shore among the rocks, with no way of getting out of them except by small boats which might take a week before completing the job. This was discouraging as a start; accordingly the captain went off in a steam launch to examine the neighboring harbor of Skagway, five miles distant, where there is a better landing. An hour later he returned with the joyful tidings that from Skagway, where a wharf was almost completed, a new trail to the lakes had been opened within a week through the White pass, which, though five miles longer than the one from Dyea, was a thousand feet lower and could be entirely crossed by horses. What was more, a few horses were there for hire, while others were expected within three or four days. This announcement was received with jubilation, even if there were some grumblers who would have preferred the original route; anchor was weighed, and before long the steamer was at Skagway, where a store has already existed for a fortnight. Although the work of disembarking lasted almost till next morning, the men themselves were soon ashore with part of their goods, and a whole village of tents sprang up under the shelter of the trees. On some were facetious signs such as "The Lobby" and "Paradise Alley"; one, presumably for unfortunates whose tents were not yet landed, or for lazy men, was labelled "Franklin Hotel," and by it all could read "Ham, ten cents." Fires, on which supper was being prepared, blazed everywhere; all was activity and good humor. Behind were comfort and civilization; ahead, thirty-two miles of trail and five hundred and thirty-four in boats constructed by the adventurers themselves, and then the Klondike with all its wondrous chances and terrible uncertainties.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, July 31, 1897.

It is very interesting, in revisiting England two years after the subsidence of the Home Rule agitation, to observe the situation made by the great Conservative victory. The very first thing which strikes me is the general political apathy—that is, the languor with which nearly all political questions are discussed. Much of this is undoubtedly due to the absorption of the public mind in the Jubilee, and there are already signs of some change. But, twenty

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years ago, the rôle which England is playing in the Mediterranean would have created the fiercest popular excitement. That the great fleet which was reviewed at Spithead the other day, which cost so much, and is the cause of so much pride, should give England so little weight in European councils, that the say of Austria or Italy should count for just as much as her say, in a problem which is mainly maritime, is undoubtedly felt to be a little humiliating. I have met no one who denies this, but I do not meet with much indignation about it. The general comment is, "What could Lord Salisbury do?" and there is a general and almost amusing disposition to throw the blame on the Greeks, who have done simply what Charles Albert did in 1849, and Garibaldi did amid thunders of applause in 1860. I notice, too, a disposition to treat the success of the Turk, in defending himself, as, in some sort, a restoration to the position of respectability as a sovereign power which he lost by his massacres in Armenia and in Crete. There is really an odd contradiction between the way in which the people treat it as a matter of common right and decency that the Greeks should pay his expenses for slaughtering them, and the way in which they repel with horror the idea of letting any Christian population pass under his rule as a consequence of his victory; that is, he has a right to kill and burn, but not to annex.

Then there is a widespread dissatisfaction with the way the Ministry is represented in foreign affairs in the House of Commons by Mr. Curzon. Nobody can recall a period when the Government spoke in the House for the Cabinet on international concerns through a man as young and as unimportant politically as Mr. Curzon. I do not mean to depreciate him in saying this, but he has produced no impression in public life to make him seem a fit successor for Canning or Palmerston or Gladstone. And then, he has that priggish air which young men who have travelled and observed much find it so difficult to avoid. Moreover, he has no backers on his side of the House. Mr. Balfour and Sir M. Hicks-Beach know much less, and care less, about foreign politics than he does, so that the task of explaining things and putting a good face on Lord Salisbury's Eastern policy is exceedingly hard and is performed with the prevailing languor and doubt. No one would imagine, to listen either to Mr. Curzon or to his chief, that England was a first-class Power and had the command of the seas.

With Lord Salisbury there is general disappointment, which even his warmest admirers find it difficult to conceal. His love of biting epigram and "blazing indiscretion" in speech, and the way he spoke of the old Turk a year ago at Guildhall, led people to expect some vigorous action in the Mediterranean, where he would have the Turk in his power. In Armenia he could do nothing, but Crete would be as completely under his guns as the Isle of Wight. His apologies for doing nothing and for being led by the three Emperors, and calling rather weakly for another Bismarck to get him out of his trouble, as he did recently in the House of Lords, even his own supporters find mortifying. That he was not a man of vigorous action has been well known ever since the Berlin Conference, but it was somehow forgotten during the Home Rule agitation. In fact, the way the dread of Home Rule led Englishmen to exalt everybody who opposed it, is a feature in the situation which is almost diverting. Nothing of late years appears to have done as much for the reputation, moral as well as political, of politicians, as to have been Unionists and to have assisted in Gladstone's overthrow. Mr. Chamberlain, for instance, has risen into the ranks of an austere moralist, even with so stern a critic as the *Spectator*, through opposing Home Rule, and yet he makes, in his works and ways, the nearest approach to the typical American politician as yet seen in English public life. For Lord Salisbury, however, there is the excuse of many months of great domestic anxiety, for Lady Salisbury has long been in a very precarious condition of health.

The size of the Tory majority, too, has much to do with producing the prevailing languor. It is so large that every one feels that nothing can happen to endanger the tenure of the Ministry. No "scare" or dissension is in the least likely to harm them. This has its effect on both sides. The Liberals feel that there is no use in agitating while the elections are at least three years away, and the Tories are quite satisfied with the situation as it is. Moreover, if the Tories were to go out to-morrow there would be the utmost uncertainty among the Liberals as to their leadership. Sir William Harcourt is very able, and has rendered great services to the party, but he is old and his health is somewhat impaired. It is doubtful whether Lord Rosebery could be induced to take his former place, even if his temperament fitted him for it, which it certainly does not. He is not serious enough for the Liberals, and then, too, he sits in the House of Lords, and the inconvenience of leadership by anybody outside the Commons is fully acknowledged. Mr. John Morley is too earnest and literary, and Mr. Asquith has hardly grown up to the place politically. So that even if it were possible to turn the Tories out to-morrow, I think the Liberals would shrink from the succession. The party, too, is a good deal rent by the "labor problem." The talk of the extreme Radicals frightens the middle classes, and in England the middle classes are always a powerful body.

No discussion of the causes of the prevailing apathy would, however, be complete without touching on two powerful aids to political indifference—sport and society. The absorption of the public mind in bicycling, football, horse-racing, boat-racing, yachting, grouse-shooting, and deer-stalking, is something of which you can have little idea, great as is the amount of attention bestowed on these things in America. It is to these mainly that people give serious and continued attention, not to the Turk or the Emperor. It is about them and not about politics one hears talk in the trains and in the parks and the taverns. Going into a barber's the other day, the operator, although I am plainly past the sporting age, asked me eagerly whether I "had any cricket news," that being, as I afterwards learned, the day of the Eton and Harrow match. I said no, I had just come to town. "But I thought you might have heard it at your club, sir," he said. Grace, the cricketer, is, in the upper circles, a greater man than Gladstone. The way the bicycle has opened the country roads to the masses, and to the women, too, in fact, has exalted muscle and staying power and speed to extraordinary eminence as objects of human interest and desire. That sport has not swept the colleges with a violence like the football cyclone in America two years ago, must be ascribed, I think, to the greater phlegm of the English temperament, and the confinement of games to simple amusement, instead of making them paying exhibitions.

The national devotion to pastime is, of course, a great help to a ministry which has a troublesome foreign policy on hand, as it is a great hindrance, especially in foreign affairs, to any kind of agitation. But, useful as it may be in this way, it cannot compare to the social influence. I do not think any contrivance in English history for the support of a party can equal what is known here as "The Primrose League." The idea on which it is based—the enormous power in English life of what is called "good society"—is said to have originated with Disraeli. No man felt the seductions of "high life" more keenly than he. He saw that the desire "to rise in the world"—that is, to get into a higher social circle than the one you live in, and, even before getting into it, to be recognized and have any kind of intercourse with those who are in it already, or, to use the popular slang, "to take tea with the Duchesses"—was the darling passion of a vast number of Englishmen and Englishwomen of the middle class. It is said to have first occurred to him that this could be readily used for political purposes, or, in other words, that it might be made to seem "caddish" to be a Liberal. So the "Primrose League" was really founded on his grave. That is, a mistake about the Queen's meaning, when she laid primroses on his tomb, and said, "They were his favorite flower" (Prince Albert's), associated the flower in the popular mind with Disraeli, to such a degree that, on his birthday, the shrewd, cynical Hebrew countenance of his statue in Westminster is comically covered with wreaths of it. When, during the Home Rule agitation, it was determined to bring this new force into play in politics, it was called the "Primrose League," and local "Habitations," or clubs, were established all over the country, to which any one might belong who was opposed to Home Rule and admired Lord Salisbury and Mr. Balfour, and in which he could, on stated occasions, take tea with the women of the county gentry, and join Duchesses and Countesses in denouncing the "Rads."

The plan has been a great success, and is probably the most potent influence behind the Tories to-day. It has put a kind of social stigma on Liberal politics. With a certain set, all Gladstonians are "caddish," or "rotten," and pains are taken to deny them social recognition. A large number of the Liberal women feel this, and regret that Tom or Charley cannot be a Conservative, as his politics cuts them off from invitations to the smartest balls and dinners. I have heard of a case where a lady who is in the habit of seeing Liberal politicians of the more radical kind, finds that her sons, who belong to the sporting world, carefully avoid meeting them, and call them "Mother's cads."

It is perhaps going too far to say that Disraeli originated the plan of making Society tell on politics. Ever since the passage of the Reform bill, a man's politics has made a difference to him socially in England to a degree unknown in America, except during the civil war. I remember that, during that

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period over here, the aristocratic set "cut" and looked down on friends of the North, just as more recently they "cut" and looked down on the friends of Home Rule; but the idea of organizing social influence so as to make of it a political power, is of recent date. The middle class is making money rapidly; titles are becoming more and more within their reach. Aristocratic exclusiveness has gone down completely before the fall of rents, and every man with money and Conservative views finds association with peers and peeresses very easy. For a middle-class Englishman, especially the young generation, few things are more intoxicating than such associations. It means invitations to country houses, "a few days' shooting" on the moors, excellent fare, and good wine; and the fever goes down till it gets almost to the laborer. It is hardly necessary to say that when a party is largely dominated by such an influence, sympathetic or imaginative politics are not in favor with it, so that the Turk chose an excellent time to do some massacring, and the Greeks a very bad time to rise, when the Conservatives were in power.

Nevertheless, the Tories are making some efforts to redeem their ante-election pledges, and to make out that they are really the true friends of the workingman. They have got through the Commons a workmen's compensation bill, under Mr. Chamberlain's direction, which is shocking employers by its liberality towards persons injured in factories and machine-shops, and the fate of which in the House of Lords is still problematical, and they have, through the Jubilee, made prodigious efforts to draw the colonies to England, with, I think, great success. All these things help to keep down the indignation which the foreign policy, and the queer failure to bring to light Mr. Chamberlain's connection with the Jameson raid, are well calculated to excite. But, after all is said that can be said of mistakes, blunders, and weaknesses, the fact remains that England is an enormous, unprecedented political success. The Government is admirably administered in every department. The best men the country can produce, whatever their faults or shortcomings, are engaged in the work of legislation. Legislation is well considered and much debated. The Boss has not yet begun to show himself. Fitness, and not "representation," is still universally recognized as the one title to office. I was glad to see that in your article on the Jubilee you called attention to these things as the true sources of English prosperity. Neglect of these things, the treatment of offices as "plums," and "representation" or "recognition" of classes and interests as the true rule of distribution, and the employment of second and third-rate men and jobbers and speculators in our legislation, are what keeps us behind England in the race.

The Foster despatch about the Treaty, which it is now said President McKinley and Mr. Sherman never saw, has, of course, excited a good deal of disgusted attention, and naturally much afflicts decent civilized Americans here. They were astonished by its emanation from the pen of Mr. Foster, who has been so long familiar with diplomatic usages. The English ascribe it, some to well-known American coarseness and bad manners, others to the desire of the Republican politicians to get up a foreign quarrel to turn popular attention away from their tariff tricks and from the currency problem. I cannot myself help explaining it, in some degree at least, by the success of Cleveland's outburst in the Venezuela affair. When I say success, I mean that it apparently produced the desired effect on the English. That is, if a friend owed you some money, and you went to his house without warning and threatened to punch his head if he did not pay you by to-morrow morning, you could well say, as so many said in America after the Cleveland message, that this was the way to make the fellow pay, for pay he certainly would if he had the money. It was a sort of proceeding which of course delighted the bar-rooms and the race-tracks. But I am bound to say I think that a very large part of Cleveland's triumph, and the resulting effect on the tone of American diplomacy, was due to Lord Salisbury's bad management. He wasted his breath arguing with Mr. Olney against "the Monroe Doctrine," as if there were any use in arguing against a "doctrine." Diplomacy has nothing to do with "doctrines," but with the application of them. Half the space would have sufficed, not for showing that the Monroe Doctrine had no force, but that the American claim of protectorate over Venezuela had not appeared in the previous correspondence, and had, in fact, been disclaimed in it, and that its sudden production in the guise of a threat was unaccountable and unmannerly. Far from this, he swallowed the threat, and meekly accepted the commission which was to draw his frontier for him, and which turned out to be perfectly useless, except for the purpose of collecting maps. It is not wonderful that, after this episode, American politicians should conclude that they might talk to him in any way they pleased, and might use any international controversy with him as a means of stirring up Jingoism.

All this was brought home to me forcibly by an article in the June number, I think, of the *Atlantic Monthly*, showing that all persons who condemned the Venezuela message—and the writer mentioned seriatim the journals which did so—were "un-American" and afflicted with over-refinement and remoteness from "nature." If this had any meaning, it meant that the forms of social intercourse, the moderation in language, and the air of respect for others, which mark the relations of civilized men in our day, indicate a falling-off on our part from the demeanor of Apaches and Comanches, to say nothing of the Australian "black fellows." An Australian savage gets his bride by hitting her on the head in the night around the fire, and then dragging her by the heels, insensible, into the bush. This is much nearer to "nature" than the methods of the civilized wooer, with his bouquets of flowers and his presents and his wedding ring, but is it better? Civilization means the imposition of a thousand restraints on "nature," and above all in social intercourse; and the methods of diplomacy are based on those of social intercourse between educated gentlemen. One of the cardinal rules of such intercourse is that, when trying to settle anything by discussion, you must not call your adversary names, or charge him with dishonesty, or, in fact, do anything needlessly to provoke him. It is unfortunate and a bad sign of the times that the more ruffianly style of debate with foreigners finds increased favor among us, when the foreigner happens to succumb to it for the sake of a quiet life. But politeness is something the civilized man owes to himself still more than to others; we should always behave civilly for our own sake as well as for that of our neighbors. It is, too, almost impossible to avoid the inference that the hatred and contempt for foreign nations which have become part and parcel of the support given to the tariff during the last twenty years, have had also a very bad effect on our diplomacy, and have done much to change foreign opinion of the American character. Many people here have the idea that we are using our remoteness and our strength to set up a barbarous nation of the fifteenth or sixteenth century, despising literature and art, loving battle, murder, and savage rudeness of speech.

E. L. G.

MUNICH IN SUMMER.

MUNICH, July, 1897.

A little volume for the pocket recently published by Dr. Gsell Fels, the well-known author of guide-books, gives the outlines of one hundred excursions from Munich, and thus bears testimony to the exceptional situation of the Bavarian capital as the centre of a multitude of enticing spots distributed in its vicinity like the knots in a spider's web. The high altitude of the city, its cleanliness, the purity of the drinking-water, obtained far away in the mountains, and the excellent sanitary conditions in general, make modern Munich one of the most salubrious cities in the world. The canalization and flooding system, since its extension in 1896 over fifty-nine additional streets and squares, reaches a present total length of 178 kilometres. The swift-flowing Isar, when at low-water mark, carries off the contents of the sewers twenty times diluted, while, according to Von Pettenkofer, the proportion of one to fifteen would be very favorable. The mortality among the population has been reduced by nearly one-half within twenty-six years, and, to judge by the looks of the common people, it cannot possibly be high. It would be folly to question the dictum of the medical profession as to the deleterious effects of beer-drinking, or to suppose that the enormous consumption of the brown fluid is productive of a high state of intellectuality; but there is a strong temptation, as one observes the people in Bavaria, to take an optimistic view of the beer question. The people, men, women, and children, soldiers as well as civilians, look hale and hearty; they have that good-nature and kindliness which, with simple people, are sure signs of physical well-being. Well-fed men and women are a common sight, but cases of inordinate corpulence are much rarer than one would expect. A certain politeness is peculiar to the people of all classes in Munich. They not only have a *Grüss Gott*, or *Wohl bekomm's*, or *Wünsche wohl zu speisen*, for every one as the occasion may suggest, but they are ready to render to the stranger those little services he is so often in need of, and to acknowledge by a *Danke bestens* the smallest fee one may happen to give. They are not quarrelsome, nor do they get excited on slight provocation. When the tramway is obstructed—which seems to happen rather frequently—the conductor good-naturedly helps to remove the obstacle without indulging in loud and undignified demonstrations of ill-humor; those scenes of vociferating officials surrounded by boisterous crowds, which attend similar mishaps

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in Paris, are not to be witnessed here. On the other hand, it must be confessed that the horses on the tramway line travel at a very deliberate pace; electric cars are running on some lines and are being rapidly introduced on others.

On Sundays the churches of the city are filled with men and women. At the same time the villages and *Sommerfrischen* in the surroundings attract multitudes of artisans and tradesmen, with their families, every Sunday when the weather is fair; according to the daily papers, over 70,000 tickets were sold on a recent Sunday at the railway stations. Disorder at the popular resorts is said to be rare; at those of the better class, such as the Kaimsaal, the conduct of the crowds is certainly irreproachable. In this large, well-constructed, and well-ventilated music-hall the audience is seated at round tables, eating, drinking, and smoking, while listening to a "popular" concert whose programme is largely made up of compositions of Handel, Haydn, Beethoven, Mendelssohn, Wagner, etc., etc.—a most characteristic combination of the material with the ideal, the one so little encroaching upon the other that not once during the softer strains of the orchestra is the most complete stillness in the audience disturbed by an ill-timed movement of one of the hundreds of knives, forks, and glasses held in suspense, or an awkward step of one of the waiters, gliding on tiptoe through the rows of tables.

It is stated on good authority that more than 4,000 painters have their studios at Munich, and as most of the productions of the resident artists are at least temporarily exhibited here, it is evident that the amount of painted canvas continually to be seen must be enormous. Aside from the five permanent institutions (the Old and New Pinakothek, the Kunstausstellung, the Von Schack Gallerie, and the exposition of the Kunstverein), the annual "International Exposition" in the Glasspalast forms a great centre of attraction during the summer months. This year's collection, the seventh, has been arranged by Von Lenbach and Prof. Seidl, the architect, with wonderful taste and artistic skill. The distribution of light is all that could be desired, the space allowed each picture abundant, and by a generous supply of divans, as well as the use of great quantities of Gobelins and Oriental drapery in vestibule and ante-rooms, grateful resting-places are prepared for tired limbs and eyes. A good restaurant in the building enables the visitor to prolong his stay beyond his usual meal hours, and thus to get the full value of the admission price.

The representation of the various countries (including America) is respectable in all cases, and in several excellent. As might be expected, the Munich groups, viz., the Künstlergenossenschaft, the Secession, and the Luitpold Gruppe, contribute the largest number of pictures. Von Lenbach has his own room, with some fifteen or twenty pieces, among which the study for a portrait of Theodor Mommsen calls for special mention. Böcklin, Uhde, Firle, Stuck, Defregger, and many other eminent masters exhibit two or more canvases each. It is not difficult, even for a layman, to see that the modern element is gaining ground among Munich artists; while predominating in the division of the Secessionists, it is not absent in the other sections. The peaceable competition of the various groups will doubtless, in the end, be productive of greater good than the bitter antagonism of years gone by; a general levelling and blending of discordant artistic principles is neither to be expected nor to be desired.

A. L.

Correspondence.

GREECE AND RUMANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial note in No. 1673 on Mr. Dillon's article concludes with the significant sentence, "If they [the Greeks] will learn to govern themselves," etc. What reason have the friends of Greece to hope that such a time will ever come? The Greeks have from time immemorial shown themselves more nearly devoid of political sense than any other civilized nation on the face of the earth. They have never acted together even in the direst emergency, except when tricked into doing so, as at Salamis, or when compelled to do so, as they were (at least in a sense) by Alexander. They were never united against the Persians, the Romans, or the Turks. If ever there was a time when concert of action was all-important, it was during the terrible years that preceded the battle of Navarino. But no leader appeared who was able to secure this concert, and, but for the opportune intervention of the three Powers, the cause of Greece would have been lost, in spite of sacrifices and bloodshed almost without a parallel in modern times. Ever since the dawn of authentic history the Greek had been the same valiant individual warrior, the same bigoted partisan, the same independent thinker, and the same failure as a member of the body politic; though his recent exploits on the Thessalian border make it necessary to revise our judgment on the first point.

And most painful of all, just as, in the days of old, the Persian and the Roman always had numerous partisans on the other side of the Ægean and the Adriatic, so in more recent times the Turk has rarely been without his supporters and champions in the same region. When Fallmerayer first launched his now exploded hypothesis on the origin of the modern Greeks, a veritable chorus of indignation went up all over Europe, but loudest from the Greeks themselves at what they chose to regard as a desecration of their national character. Since then it has been abundantly demonstrated that an infiltration of Slavic blood might have given them some of the docility, the dogged persistence, and obedience to authority which they so sadly lack, and which probably would have saved them from many of their national misfortunes. It is painful to reflect that the people who have taught the world far more than any other, perhaps more than all others combined, should themselves have learned less than any other. It begins to be only too plain that the harsh judgment of Finlay is, after all, not far astray. Everywhere in Greece one sees that almost the entire male population is still seriously smitten with the mania so much ridiculed by Aristophanes, a passionate fondness for politics. No government can long exist where almost the whole male population is either holding an office or waiting for one—all consumers and no producers. It is not easy to say what is to be done with a people that cannot govern themselves and yet will not submit to be governed by others.

It is interesting in this connection to cast a glance at the recent progress of Rumania as set forth in a volume by Consul-General Benger, entitled 'Rumänien: Ein Land der Zukunft, 1866-96.' The showing made by this book is most creditable to both Government and the people. The population is increasing rapidly, chiefly by immigration. Within the last forty years more than half the soil has been taken under cultivation, the number of hectares having been considerably more than doubled, while in the adjacent Servia the uncultivated soil constitutes nearly six-sevenths of the entire area. Its productiveness per hectare has likewise been correspondingly increased, and the increase in both respects is going steadily forward. Six years ago there were in use in the kingdom 11 steam ploughs, 2,283 threshing machines, 1,474 reapers, and 1,183 mowing machines. Benger calls attention to the fact that while the exportation of wheat from Rumania had increased relatively between 1886-7 and 1892-3 from 514 to 730, that from North America had risen only from 4,074 to 5,086, and he believes that the day is not very far distant when his country will be able to compete on equal terms with North America in the wheat markets of the world.

The first railroad was opened in 1869, and was but 70 kilometres in length. Since then the increase has been more than forty-fold, and there has been a corresponding improvement in highways. Telegraph lines are also being rapidly extended. In 1863 Rumania had but 38 post-offices, now it has nearly ten times as many. The Government receipts for 1883-4 were, in round numbers, 123,000,000 francs; in 1893-4, 189,000,000. The rate of taxation per caput is about 28 francs, to which is to be added 2 francs for local purposes. During the last fifteen years the Government has expended nearly 1,000,000,000 francs for railroads, bridges, docks, highways, military equipments, etc. The public debt amounts to 1,180,000,000 francs, of which sum 200,000,000 is held at home, 220,000,000 in France, and the balance in Germany. Much has been done to promote the general intelligence of the people. The schools are free and attendance obligatory. The two universities, Bucharest and Yassy, founded only a third of a century ago, had last year nearly 1,700 students. In recent years the Government has expended annually on its schools over 20,000,000 francs, as against about one-third of this sum twenty years ago. In 1885 the attendance at the village schools was, in the whole kingdom, but 107,000; at present it is more than 220,000.

The handsome volume of Benger, based, as it is, almost entirely on official statistics, makes a very creditable showing for the Rumanians.

C. W. Super.

Athens, O., August, 1897.

THE CHOICE OF PROFESSORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The communication in your issue of July 29, signed "Prexie," doubtless won the sympathetic approval of many readers. In his quest for a professor of the classics "Prexie" appears to have corresponded chiefly with young men who had recently completed the course of professional study. It might be enough to say that these young men, following the guidance of their in-

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structors, had been so engrossed with technical studies that time had been lacking for the production of papers purely literary. Apparently it is not easy in this country, or in Germany, to win the respect of scholars by work that is purely or chiefly literary.

One who has a wide acquaintance among college instructors learns many curious facts regarding the appointment of college professors—and, it may be added, of college presidents. I am tempted to cite one instance that came under my personal observation. A candidate for a professorship in one of our colleges sent to the president a copy of the thesis—a discussion of a literary topic—which he had presented for the doctor's degree. He was appointed to the position, and afterward chanced to see in the office of the president his thesis, *uncut*. The appointment had been made chiefly upon the written recommendations of two older professors, whose judgment the president felt it safer to trust than his own; and he acted wisely in not attempting to pass upon the thesis.

This incident suggests another phase of the problem propounded by "Prexie." Let us grant his ability to appraise written work presented by candidates for a professorship in the classics. Is he equally ready to appraise the work of specialists in modern languages, in history, in philosophy, in mathematics, in the sciences? As a matter of fact, the most trustworthy means of judgment is the testimony of reputable professors who have actual knowledge of candidates and their work; upon such evidence "Prexie" eventually found it wisest to rely. It is not true that professors in our leading universities will recommend men whom they regard as unworthy or incapable; they are guarded in their language, and their strong recommendations are reserved for strong men.

"Prexie" names two of the younger Humanists (one of them better known as a student of linguistic phenomena) who are known to him as contributors to periodical literature. He cannot have scanned with sufficient closeness the mass of this literature. Certainly he should not have overlooked two admirable articles by a young writer—articles that appeared within a few months in the *Atlantic Monthly*—one, on "The Rational Study of the Classics"; the other, on "Brunetière as a Critic."

From what I have written it may not appear how largely I am in agreement with the views expressed in the communication upon which I have ventured to comment.

PROFESSOR.

Notes.

Harper & Bros. have in press 'School-boy Life in England,' by John Corbin.

A genealogy of the 'Old Families of Salisbury and Amesbury, Mass., with some Related Families of Newbury, Haverhill, Ipswich, and Hampton,' down to about 1700, has been prepared by David W. Hoyt, Providence, who invites subscriptions at one dollar per part, the size depending on the support thus accorded.

The life of Thomas Chandler Haliburton, better known as "Sam Slick," which will be issued almost immediately by the Haliburton Club of Windsor, Nova Scotia, will be the joint production of Professors Wrong and De Mille; of Robert Grant Haliburton, elder surviving son of "Sam Slick"; of F. Blake Crofton, Librarian to the Legislature of Nova Scotia; and of Mr. Anderson of the British Museum. The last-named will contribute the Bibliography of the "Old Judge" to the "Centennial Chaplet."

Capt. Wagner has not allowed his transfer to the Adjutant-General's department to stop his "International Military Series," of which he began the editing while instructor at the Fort Leavenworth Infantry and Cavalry School. Number four of the series (Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.) is a republication of essays by Captain F. N. Maude of the English Engineers, which originally appeared in the *Civil and Military Gazette* of Lahore, India. Captain Maude's vigorous style and trenchant criticism make his papers always stimulating, and he is sure to select topics bearing directly on the military problems of the day. Number five is an English translation by Lieut.-Gen. East, C. B., of the German General von Arnim's method of rapid instruction in outpost and skirmishing duty. With its maps, it makes a valuable handbook for the peace-time drill, showing what varieties of invention a bright officer has at his command for imitating occurrences of actual war. The same publishers bring out a second edition of Lieut. Root's 'Military Topography and Sketching,' brought down to date by the Fort Leavenworth Instructors in Engineering.

The first of the flood of publications on Alaska in its gilded aspect to reach us is Miner W. Bruce's 'Alaska: Its History and Resources, Gold Fields, Routes and Scenery' (Seattle: Lowman & Hanford). The author writes in good faith and soberly, from six years' experience, supplies a large number of excellent illustrations, and a map of the Territory. A new manual to an old resort is 'The Mammoth Cave of Kentucky,' by Horace Carter Hovey, A.M., D.D., and Richard Ellsworth Call, A.M., Ph.D. (Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.). It is, in its appointments of letter-press and pictures, the best guide to the cave we have ever seen, and its science is conformable to our present knowledge. A handbook was demanded by the recent Historic Festival in Plymouth, Mass., July 28-August 3, and is given in 'Old Plymouth Days and Ways' (Plymouth: A. S. Burbank). It is a prettily illustrated souvenir, and among its scraps is a catalogue of the loan exhibition in the Winslow House.

The 'Album Géographique' of MM. Dubois and Guy (Paris: A. Colin et Cie.) has reached a second volume, which is devoted to the tropics, except those parts included in the French colonial possessions. For those a special volume, showing their aspect and development, is promised. The present is divided into fifteen sections, each containing about thirty pictures of the scenery, habitations, and people of varying degrees of interest and excellence. In some instances these are so old that, taken together with the descriptive text, they are misleading as regards present conditions. This is especially noticeable in the section on East Africa. The sources from which the materials have been drawn seem to have been unwisely restricted mainly to French and German works.

Nonagenarian contributors to the magazines are rare enough in any country, but the *New England Magazine* for August has one such in the person of Mrs. Elizabeth Buffum Chace, who writes on "Old Quaker Days in Rhode Island" in the town of Smithfield, where her ancestors settled. It is in reminiscence that the old betray their age, but this charming little picture of bygone days and customs is compact, orderly, pithy, and suggestive of anything but superannuation. Indeed, it illustrates one observation of the writer worth repeating. She says of the Buffum tribe that "they spoke the English language correctly; and I can think of no other reason for the class distinction which certainly did exist in this community except that it was determined by the different manner in which the language was spoken. There were families scattered right along this country road, owning farms, behaving as irreproachably as their neighbors, and dealing as honestly, who had no social relations with these same neighbors. They probably used two negatives where there was need of only one, and put plural personal pronouns with singular verbs."

A discussion, chiefly interesting for the curious views expressed, has been going on for some months in the London *Author* with regard to the practical use of the perplexing English subjunctive. A new turn has been given to it by the publication in the June and July numbers of tables stating the results of a search for the inflectional subjunctive in ten volumes of standard modern prose, including works of Dowden, Hardy, James, Lang, Lecky, Meredith, Morley, Stephen, Stevenson, and Traill, and aggregating about 900,000 words. The statistician's results are that subjunctives of any verb except *be* are used by all these ten authors only fifteen times. We suspect that only the third person singular of the present subjunctive of such verbs has been searched for, and that it was with reference to this alone that the discussion has arisen; but, however that may be, a subsequent correspondent deduces from the tables the following "practical" rules for British authors, which we hereby pass on to the American guild, as in duty and courtesy bound: (1.) "Only use the subjunctive mood of the verb *to be*"; (2.) "The subjunctive of the verb *to be* should only be used [he probably means, should be used only] after *if*."

The *Annales de Géographie* for July opens with a tentative sketch of a botanical chart of France, illustrated by a map of the Perpignan district so colored as to show the different kinds of forest trees and their location. This is followed by papers upon the river Oder, the physical geography of the Caucasus, and Tierra del Fuego. Dr. O. Nordenskjöld, the leader of the Swedish exploring expedition to this forlorn land, gives the impressions received during a twelve months' sojourn. The vegetation consists "in great part of evergreens, forming virgin forests almost as dense as those of the tropics, which, moreover, they recall in various ways." Their silence is deathlike. Even the war of the perpetual tempests does not penetrate it. There are no bird-sounds but the occasional cry of a parrot; no insects but spiders. In describing the Ona Indians, the most numerous of the primitive inhabitants of Tierra del Fuego, the writer says that perhaps no people are so badly protected against the climate as they. The paper is illustrated by some interesting photographs. The editor calls attention to the scantiness of our knowledge of the borderland between Algeria and Morocco,

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and remarks also that since the Spaniards have made Melilla a free port, a new trade-route has been opened by which arms and European products are carried to the south. In an interesting note a recent official order forbidding further emigration to Siberia, on the ground that there is no more available land, is explained. The nomad Kirghiz, with their enormous herds, now have possession of all the remaining unoccupied land near fresh water. Until they are provided for, emigration will be stopped.

The quarterly statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for July announces that the excavations at Jerusalem have ceased on account of the termination of the firman permitting them, but that application has been made to the Porte for leave to undertake excavations elsewhere. It has been a source of regret that no specimens of Hebrew writing have been discovered in the course of the work. Just at the close, however, a cornelian seal was found with a name inscribed in characters of the sixth century B. C., according to Prof. Sayce, or "about 450 B. C., or from the time of Ezra," according to Col. Conder. A preliminary account by M. Clermont-Ganneau of the extraordinary fifth-century mosaic map of Christian Palestine, Egypt, and possibly Asia Minor, recently discovered at Mâdeba, a Moabite city to the east, endeavors to identify some of the geographical names displayed. A plan of Jerusalem in this map may throw light on the disputed questions connected with its topography. Other articles are on the water of Jacob's Well, the Damascus railways, and the length of the Jewish cubit by Col. Watson. By a comparison of a large number of fresh Syrian barleycorns with some taken from an Egyptian grave of the third century of our era, he concludes that it was very nearly 17.79 inches long. The barleycorn, it may be added, his researches lead him to believe, is the best natural object which could have been selected as a unit of measure.

The Conference on uniform entrance requirements in English, which met in New York in June, consisted of representatives from the college and secondary school associations of the Eastern, Southern, and North Central States. Its deliberations resulted in the removal of several objectionable books from the prescribed list; in a list of books for 1901 and 1902 that does not differ materially from that of 1900, and in the addition to the requirements of clauses recommending the secondary schools to offer instruction in elementary rhetoric, and allowing colleges to examine candidates on English grammar and, to a very limited extent, on certain periods of English literature. The Conference only partially completed its work, and adjourned to meet at Christmas in Philadelphia.

The number of matriculated students attending German universities during the summer semester of 1897 is indicated by the first figures, the whole number of hearers by the second figures, and the number of women among the hearers by the third figures in the following list: Berlin, 4705. 344, 114; Bonn, 1889, 103, 13; Breslau, 1541, 83, 22; Erlangen, 1140, 13; Freiburg, 1449, 95; Giessen, 663, 29; Göttingen 1123, 72, 34; Greifswald 834, 19; Halle 1534, 101, 6; Heidelberg, 1230, 92; Jena, 704, 50; Kiel, 727, 37; Königsberg, 695, 31, 11; Leipsic, 3064, 157; Marburg 1042, 48, 7; Munich, 3871, 160, 2; Academy of Münster, 487, 10; Rostock, 499, 10; Strassburg, 1016, 31; Tübingen, 1289, 12; Würzburg, 1430, 13. The whole number of matriculated students was 30,982, and hearers 1519, of whom 207 were women; students of theology 4326, of law 8368, medicine 8232, and philosophy 10,006. There was a marked decrease of students of theology and medicine, and an increase of students in the philosophical department, especially in philology and natural science. There seem to have been no women hearing lectures at Leipsic, although there were several in attendance last winter.

The professors of the Berlin University, Wagner and Sering, in the department of political economy, and Erich Schmidt, in that of modern philology and literature, speak in the highest terms of the attainments and achievements of the women who have attended their lectures during the last three semesters. A year ago there were 39, in the following winter 95, and in the summer semester just closed 114 in attendance. Many of these were not only "hearers," but also "doers of the word," inasmuch as they worked diligently and successfully in the seminaries of their respective professors. Prof. Schmidt mentions especially one young lady, a Russian, who had already taken the degree of Ph.D. at the University of Berne, and whose dissertations in his seminary were "the best." Several women have also carried on independent investigations with remarkable success in the physiological institute in the departments of physics as well as of microscopic biology.

On May 31 Elsa Eschelsson read and defended her thesis before the law faculty of the University of Upsala, and received the degree of Doctor juris, with the customary badges of this academical promotion, namely, a ring, a diploma, and a doctor's hat. Her thesis was "On the Idea of Donation in Swedish Law." We may add that the hat was not quite as tall as that given to men. This difference was, however, purely æsthetical, and had no reference whatever to the comparative height of her scholarly attainments. Soon afterwards she was admitted to the faculty of the same university as privat-docent, and will lecture on civil law.

—In the month of November last, the committee appointed by the Harvard Board of Overseers to visit the Department of Composition and Rhetoric called upon the students in all the English courses of the college to prepare a composition upon the following subject:

"Describe the training you received, or the experience you may have had, in writing English before entering college, giving the names of the schools in which, or the instructors from whom, you received it; and then, speaking in the light of your subsequent work and experience in college, point out wherein your preparatory training now seems to you to have been good and sufficient, and wherein it seems to have been defective and to admit of improvement."

In response to this call over 1,300 papers were handed in. The students writing them came from nearly 500 different preparatory schools in all parts of the country and in Europe, and some from other colleges. In the papers they described the systems in use in all these institutions at the time the writers belonged to them—that is, within a comparatively recent period. After going carefully through this large mass of raw material, the committee prepared a report, which has recently been submitted to the Board of Overseers, and will be published during the month. In view of the active discussion of "College English" occasioned by the previous reports of this committee, the forthcoming one can hardly fail to be looked forward to with interest by all teachers engaged in the secondary education. It is understood that in it the committee have reached certain final conclusions in regard to the methods of instruction in the art of writing English now in use, and suggest important modifications; their recommendations being based on the evidence contained in the 1,300 papers they have examined, numerous extracts from which will accompany the report to fortify the conclusions of the committee. The originals are to be bound in volumes, and placed for future reference in the College Library. The committee consists of Charles F. Adams, Edwin L. Godkin, and George R. Nutter; and this, the third report made by them, will also probably be the final one. The previous reports, it will be remembered, were editorially discussed in the *Nation* at the time of their publication.

—Proposals for a new 'Lexicon Platonicum,' signed by Prof. Lewis Campbell and Mr. David B. Monro, Provost of Oriel College, are now in circulation. These proposals begin by calling attention to the need, long felt by classical philologists, of an 'Index Platonicus' corresponding to the 'Index Aristotelicus' published in 1870. The rarity of Ast's 'Lexicon Platonicum' (1835) is then adverted to. It can scarcely be had now at any price under $16. Its treatment of important words is not exhaustive, and its arrangement is defective. It of course contains no record of the extensive and minute research recently devoted to Plato's use of the particles. Mitchell's 'Index Græcitatis Platonicæ' (1832) is still more defective and has been long out of print. For all the minutiæ of Plato's habits of speech, and for the changes observable between his earlier and latest styles, German monographs, not easily procurable and of uneven merit, have to be consulted. These have, for the most part, appeared since Ast's Lexicon. The most practicable scheme is therefore to prepare a new lexicon based upon Ast's and on important monographs which have appeared since his day. The mere cost of reprinting Ast is estimated at $3,500. The cost of the necessary revision of that work would bring up the expense of a new edition to $7,250. This outlay would not be covered by the demand for such a revision when completed. Accordingly, the help of learned societies and the liberality of individual scholars is appealed to. The Oxford Philological Society has shown interest in the matter, and other learned English societies are expected to join in furthering it. The subject has also been mooted in the Paris Académie des Inscriptions. It may be hoped that there are societies in America which will take up the matter. If, by the combined efforts of these societies, $4,000 can be raised, a committee taken from their membership could be formed with good hope of success in the work. Such a committee might invite donations payable in three annual instalments, and could eventually appoint an editor, who should be empowered to organize and direct the undertaking, obtaining help from competent scholars. Finally, the book could be published at something like $10.50 net for subscribers, and about $12.50 for the public. Original subscribers would be entitled to one

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copy free of charge. A sale of 350 copies would cover expenses, and any profits might go to the subscribing societies.

—*Scribner's* for August is a "fiction number," and contains some tales which are not noticeably different in character or interest from the thousand and one printed between other covers; Mr. Rudyard Kipling's ".007" is an exception. It is a story about locomotive engines, the locomotive being personified and talking in a dialect which Mr. Kipling seems inferentially to impute to the engineers and drivers of locomotives. If he is right, they talk a language very like that of the loafers and blackguards who hang around village stations. The story appears to be an allegory on the theme that pride goes before a fall, which of course applies to locomotives as well as to men. Mr. Kipling has evidently made a realistic study of the machinery of a locomotive, and introduces a great many technical terms of which we never heard before, and which are no doubt accurately used. The question whether the dialect is good realism or not we must leave to realists. It is a low, blackguardly, vulgar language, and may be said to mark one of the boundaries of magazine realism. An English-speaking magazine audience will not stand filth and obscenity, although filth and obscenity are highly realistic; and hence we have to go for them to Zola, whose liberty some of our great masters of fiction must often envy. What a splendid theme (but for this) an allegory of fire-engines in the old days in this city would have been! If this barrier could be once broken down, as it has been in the domain of certain newspapers, a fiction number might be produced which would make an unparalleled sensation. But realism with us has its prudery, of which the rules are thoroughly understood in the magazine world.

—The August *Century* is altogether an excellent collection of papers. In "The Lordly Hudson" Clarence Cook praises the scenery of the Highlands, and seems not to repel the opinion that the Creator, in designing them, had an eye to their effect as seen from the deck of a North River boat. Thomas Dwight Goodell contributes a charming "Journey in Thessaly," which deserves preservation in some form. "The Alaska Trip," by John Muir, is full of valuable information, as is also the article called "Down to Java" by Mrs. Scidmore. Norway, past and present, in contrast, is treated of by Horace E. Scudder and Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. All these are more or less illustrated; in fact, almost every paper in the number has something in the way of illustrations. General Schofield's article on "Controversies in the War Department" contains, besides some weighty professional criticism, an important private memorandum of his made in May, 1868, containing facts never before made public relating to the impeachment of Andrew Johnson. It seems, in brief, that when the impeachment trial had reached a stage at which the issue hung in the balance, Mr. Evarts, who was defending the President, sent for General Schofield, and asked him to consent that "at any time before the close of the impeachment trial" his name might be sent in as Secretary of War in place of Mr. Stanton. General Schofield asked permission to confer with General Grant, and permission was given to speak to the latter "incidentally," but not to refer to the proposition as coming from the President. Schofield therefore told Grant that he had reason to believe that such a proposition would be made, "upon the theory" that the President would be acquitted; on which Grant cautiously said that he supposed there was "no reasonable doubt" of a conviction, but that if such was not to be the event, he would be glad to have Schofield in the War Department. Another interview with Mr. Evarts followed, in which that gentleman stated that impeachment was then seen to be a mistake by the Republicans, and the question was "how to get out of the scrape," and that certain Senators had suggested Schofield's nomination in order that the Senate "might vote upon the President's case in the light of that nomination." The upshot of it all was that on April 24, 1868, the nomination was sent to the Senate, about a month later the impeachment failed by a single vote, and Schofield was unanimously confirmed. Curiously enough, on April 25, Grant confidentially requested Schofield not to accept, having changed his mind because (the editor of the *Century* suggests in a note) he feared the effect the nomination would have on the impeachment proceedings.

—The *Atlantic Monthly* has several papers worth reading. John Muir writes about the "American Forests," and tells the sad story of their destruction with some new touches. His account of the industry of the "Shake-maker," and his anecdote of the curious trade in timber-land claims carried on by the mariners of a certain steamship line, who, on arrival in port, make a "bee-line" for the forests, where they preempt land for their terra-firma employers at so much a head, form a striking contribution to the literature of this subject. Dr. Geo. Birkbeck Hill's first instalment of "Unpublished Letters of Dean Swift" is accompanied by an illuminating gloss by their editor. We see in these letters an unerring reflection of the writer and of the times. On August 2, 1715, for instance, Swift knew as little as any one what was going to happen, and writes, "The story of an invasion is all blown off." The Earl of Mar had then left London to raise the Highlands for King James. Swift's ignorance was the ignorance of half England. Mr. William Allen White gives an account of a "Typical Kansas Community," which should be read in connection with the succeeding essay on "A Massachusetts Shoe Town," by Alvan F. Sanborn. Mr. Sanborn's theory of the present condition of Massachusetts seems to be that a democratic state is in process of being replaced by what he calls "stratified" classes. But the stratification cannot, on his own evidence, be said to have reached a very advanced stage. To a visitor from Austria, Spain, or even from England, we doubt if the classes, orders, or castes of Brompton would seem very clearly marked. Sociologists often forget that a real social class cannot be formed by money alone; it must have rights, duties, customs, and ideas of its own. But there is no doubt which way the wind is blowing. William Roscoe Thayer has a thoughtful article on "The Pause in Criticism—and After"—a plea for individual as distinguished from evolutionary literary criticism of the Taine order. He notes the disappearance of "authoritative voices" in criticism. Goethe, Arnold, Lowell—who are their successors? It is absurd, as Mr. Thayer very truly points out, to determine a writer's value by such tests as *la race, le moment,* and *le milieu,* without also inquiring what he has to say. Several writers may be mentioned—among others, Shakspere—who remain important personages in literature, though little or nothing is known about the personal influences or circumstances under which their work was produced. If any one doubts whether Mr. Thayer's protest is called for, let him read Enrico Ferri's paper on "The Delinquent in Art and Literature," and see what Taine's more advanced successors are doing. Here we have the new criminological search-light turned on art and literature with extraordinary critical results. According to the writer, "nearly all criminologists" classify criminals under five heads, as first arranged by him. This is rather depressing to those who have been in the habit of believing that crime was as various as human character; but it is not so surprising as to find the old dispute about *Hamlet* settled by his being classed as a "mad criminal," while *Macbeth* is put down as "the instinctive, or born, criminal." His wife did not think so.

—*Harper's* for August has a curious illustrated article by Fletcher Osgood called "A State in Arms against a Caterpillar," describing the operations of the Massachusetts Board of Agriculture in its war of extermination against the gypsy-moth. This creature was brought over here twenty-six years ago by a French *savant*, and, escaping by accident, has since infested Medford and a large adjoining district. So frightful have been the ravages of the insect in Russia that it is supposed that it may, if unchecked, ravage the whole Atlantic Coast, and hence the State of Massachusetts has resolved to exterminate it. Not with a sword, but with petroleum fire and burlap bands and a Board of Agriculture of fifty members, with the Governor at its head, and under them specialists and a uniformed service and a plant, does she seek placid quiet in freedom from this detestable bug, whether in the shape of caterpillar, pupa, moth, or egg. The board seems to have absolute war powers, for not only have 42,000,000 trees, but more than 400,000 buildings, walls, and fences been inspected. The results, according to the writer, justify the expenditure of time and money, some 4,000,000,000 of the enemy having been destroyed, and the pest having been prevented from spreading or from seriously injuring the district in which it first made its appearance. With sufficient appropriations, Massachusetts promises to extirpate him from the New World to the last egg. The writer somewhat impairs the force of what would otherwise be a very striking article by suggesting that, in his opinion, Congress should help the State. He mentions absolutely no reason for thinking that the State needs any help. The chief illustrated subjects, not running on serially, are "The Inauguration," by Richard Harding Davis, with drawings by C. D. Gibson and T. de Thulstrup, and the "Hungarian Millennium," written and illustrated by F. Hopkinson Smith. Owen Wister has one of his short Western stories, in which, to our mind, he employs his undeniable cleverness and gift for story-telling unprofitably. We cannot help suspecting that he is a victim of the pseudo-patriotic virus which is doing so much to poison letters.

—Five new volumes in the series of 'Fa-

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mous Scots' (Charles Scribner's Sons) show that Scotland and her sons stand ready, as of old, to maintain the undying glory of her elder offspring, even though in some cases the footprints are but thin and few. 'Tobias Smollett,' by Oliphant Smeaton, is valuable enough as setting forth the facts of the novelist's career; but it is disfigured by a rampant style, the flowers of the most irritating journalism strewing the pages, to use the author's own accurate and novel illustration, "as thick as leaves in Vallombrosa." 'James Boswell,' by Keith Lease, is less offensive, but is written throughout in a semi-jocose tone, exactly what the author complains of in Boswell's contemporaries—that no one could take him seriously. There is the usual attack on Macaulay, yet his demonstration of Boswell's fatuity is confirmed on every page, and Mr. Lease remarks, with great naïveté, that it is lucky the Temple correspondence was unknown to Macaulay, as it would have made his description more brilliant. Every anecdote accumulated to prove Boswell's constructive skill seems only to set in a clear light his congenital mental weakness, for which his biographer is forced to find an explanation in heredity. The life of 'Thomas Chalmers,' by the Rev. W. Garden Blaikie, is lively and sympathetic, while dignified in tone. If in places the evangelical temper seems too prominent, it must be remembered that only under the influence of such feelings could a biographer really enter into Dr. Chalmers's motive and methods. 'Fletcher of Saltoun' receives from G. W. T. Omond all justice; but after our very scanty materials have been drained dry, little is left beyond a tradition of eloquence, honesty, and patriotism, rendered ineffective by a bitter and impracticable temper. The Blackwood group of writers—Wilson, Galt, Moir, etc.—is fairly well handled by Sir George Douglas, but one doubts if his most earnest efforts will do much to revive what seems at this day their strangely exaggerated popularity and influence.

CROMWELL'S PLACE IN HISTORY.

Cromwell's Place in History. Founded on Six Lectures delivered in the University of Oxford. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner, D.C.L. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

"With Cromwell's memory it has fared as with ourselves. Royalists painted him as a devil; Carlyle painted him as the masterful saint who suited his peculiar Valhalla. It is time for us to regard him as he really was, with all his physical and moral audacity, with all his tenderness and spiritual yearnings, in the world of action what Shakspere was in the world of thought—the greatest because the most typical Englishman of all time. This, in the most enduring sense, is Cromwell's place in history. He stands there, not to be implicitly followed as a model, but to hold up a mirror to ourselves wherein we may see alike our weakness and our strength."

These are the words which conclude Mr. Gardiner's admirable and instructive essay on 'Cromwell's Place in History.' They bring into view a side of the Protector's character which has been too much overlooked. He was an Englishman of Englishmen, he was a typical representative of the nation which, under his guidance, became the leading Power in Europe. Every feature in Cromwell recalls some specially English characteristic. His sagacity in discerning what was immediately practicable is what we mean by English common sense. This quality has been possessed by every man who has permanently influenced England; it was the property of all the Tudors; it is to be found in men as different from one another as Walpole, William the Third, Pitt, Peel, and Palmerston. The want of it was the ruin of the Stuarts. They some of them had a touch of genius; they most of them possessed more than average capacity; they none of them, not even Charles the Second, were persons of sound sense. Cromwell's decisive energy at every crisis is the quality which lies at the basis of half England's greatness. The men who snatched the dominion both of America and of India from France had many defects and many weaknesses, but they had each and all of them this in common: they knew, when the supreme moment came, how to act with decision. The qualities which gave victory to Wolfe at Quebec were the qualities which made Inglis defend Lucknow against fearful odds, and which replanted the standard of England in Delhi. The religion, again, of Cromwell is exactly the form of religion which has influenced every Englishman who has been both a man of piety and a man of action. No mistake of Carlyle's was greater than the idea which he certainly impresses on his readers, that the religious convictions of Cromwell differed in their nature and in their sincerity from the convictions which have governed and do govern the lives of hundreds of Englishmen. Cromwell would have felt himself quite at home with Havelock when marching to Lucknow, or with Gordon when defending Khartum.

Nothing assuredly truer has been said about the Protector than that he was a typical Englishman, and if Mr. Gardiner's delightful little work did no more than impress this fact upon the world, it would have attained its object and rendered a lasting service to the students of history. But though Mr. Gardiner's estimate of Cromwell is, we doubt not, true, we may hesitate to believe that it contains the whole truth, or represents the complete and final judgment which the world will pronounce on the Protector. A man may be the most typical Englishman of all time, and yet not exactly the greatest of Englishmen, and Mr. Gardiner's description of his hero—for Cromwell has become almost as much Mr. Gardiner's hero as he is Carlyle's—hardly answers at least two questions which inevitably suggest themselves to any one who studies Mr. Gardiner's estimate of the Puritan leader.

Why did Cromwell's career constitute the most extraordinary combination of apparent success ending in undoubted failure?

The higher our estimate of Cromwell's genius, the greater is our difficulty in answering this inquiry. If any one asks how Napoleon fell from being the despot of Europe to the position of a helpless prisoner, the answer lies ready at hand. No man of transcendent powers ever made a greater number of moral and intellectual blunders; his triumphs are balanced and even enhanced by his failures. The expedition to Egypt, and still more the return from Egypt, prepare us for the invasion of Russia and for the dastardly flight back to France. The Emperor was one of those men in whom there really seems to have existed something like the alliance between genius and madness. Napoleon, moreover, did not fail in the sense in which Cromwell failed. To have achieved great feats, to have exhibited to all the world his unrivalled powers, both as a soldier and as a statesman, to have created a Napoleonic legend, to have made himself a name which can never be forgotten as long as men remember the history of France, to have placed himself among the rulers of men side by side with Alexander, with Cæsar, and with Charlemagne, are achievements which must have gratified the most ambitious dreams of Bonaparte. A few years' imprisonment must have been to him but a small price to pay for the gratification of his love of fame.

If we are asked why Cromwell's work fell to pieces with the end of his life, and why it is that not a single institution can be traced to Cromwell as its author, it is a far harder matter to find a reply. During his lifetime Cromwell never met with a reverse; in everything which he undertook he succeeded. If we look at the immediate results of his actions, we might say that he never made a blunder. Is not the true answer one which Cromwell's admirers and even his assailants are not willing to give? Is it not that, in spite of all his great qualities, Cromwell does not rank high among statesmen? No fair judge can place him side by side with men of great creative genius. Alexander, Cæsar, Constantine, Frederick the Great, stand apart and form a class of their own in virtue of having each achieved permanent results. They each knew how to build up, they each became the representative of great movements, they each looked to the future. The peculiarity of Cromwell is that he fixed his eyes exclusively upon the requirements of the moment. Never did man seize with more unerring sagacity upon the measures which best met the immediate wants of the time. In this quality, as in others, he was emphatically English, and, in virtue of this keen insight into the needs of the day, he avoided errors and achieved immediate success. But of him it might be said, as it has been said of Peel, that his insight far exceeded his foresight, that he was much more clearsighted than longsighted. There seems to have been something in his very belief in Providence which prevented him from taking thought for anything like the distant future.

We may trace this characteristic in all his actions and even more in his omissions. It explains how it happened that he never, in all probability, definitely determined who should succeed to the Protectorate. It is incredible that he entertained any fixed design of making Richard his successor. He was assuredly not deficient in knowledge of character. He was not blind to his son's defects, and it needed but slight knowledge of Richard to perceive that he had none of the qualities required in a man called upon to fill a position which at the very lowest demanded both experience in affairs and indomitable resolution. Cromwell undoubtedly wished to maintain a system of parliamentary government, yet he never understood that parliamentary government of any kind would be impossible if he dissolved his own Parliament the moment he found himself in disagreement with it. It is not certain that as regards Ireland Mr. Gardiner does full justice either to the Puritans or to their leader. The exaggerated admiration of Carlyle and Froude ought not to conceal from us the fact that the policy of Cromwell, if it had been fairly and per-

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manently carried out, would have made every Irish Protestant loyal to the English connection, and that this is a good deal more than the rulers who succeeded Cromwell achieved. But it is certainly characteristic of the Protector not to have taken into account many of the results which would inevitably flow from his Irish policy. He can hardly have hoped to extirpate Roman Catholicism, but nothing short of extirpation would have made his action towards the Irish Papists a political success. You cannot by persecution transform rebels into loyal citizens.

The case of Ireland, however, is peculiar, and, as we have said, the policy of Cromwell might have achieved at any rate more success than the efforts of succeeding statesmen. The blunder of blunders was the execution of Charles. To urge that Cromwell strove hard to avoid this catastrophe and wished till the very end of 1648 for a conference with the King, and that, to use Mr. Gardiner's words, "he could but know that the pleadings of his own heart were reinforced by every motive of policy," * is to damn Cromwell's statesmanship. What Mr. Gardiner's words mean is that, to meet the immediate difficulties of a tremendous crisis, Cromwell overlooked every motive of policy, and purchased temporary success at the sacrifice of the future of Puritanism. The dangers of sparing the King's life were great. All that one need contend is that they were not nearly as great as the dangers involved in his death. The execution of Charles I. insured the restoration of Charles II. The Whig statesmen of 1689 read aright the lesson of 1649. It is not the death of a King, but his banishment, which involves the ruin of a dynasty. It may of course be said, and with truth, that Cromwell expected a longer life than he was granted by Providence; that if he had remained at the head of affairs, say till 1670, he would probably have died acknowledged King of England, and have become the founder of a new race of kings. This is true, but the very fact that Cromwell suffered so much to depend upon the continuance of his own life betrays exactly the weakness which marks all his policy—the habit, that is to say, of looking to the present and averting his glance from the contemplation of the future.

But Cromwell, we shall be told, had at any rate wide schemes for the formation of a great Protestant alliance, of which England was to be the head. This Cromwell's admirers are accustomed to represent as the heroic and the romantic side of his statesmanship. Mr. Gardiner's little book, however, does much to dispel our belief in the Protestant hero. Cromwell did, it is true, dream of a grand alliance for the protection of Protestantism, but he soon found, with his usual clear-sightedness, that his visions or schemes were out of date. The Peace of Westphalia had in effect closed the era of religious wars. The idea of a Protestant alliance was practically exchanged for the commonplace effort to extend the colonial dominion of England. Nor, if Mr. Gardiner is to be trusted, was this effort crowned with any very splendid success. Whether the historian is in this matter just to the Protector is open to question, but it would be the height of presumption for any critic to treat lightly the conclusions of the best-informed and the most impartial of inquirers, and Mr. Gardiner arrives at the result that in his foreign policy Oliver made a definite mistake. He attempted to render England great by land as well as by sea, but to attempt this was to overstrain the resources of the country. "With her small population and her still restricted commerce, could England bear the double strain to which France proved unequal and be great on land as well as great at sea?" If, with Mr. Gardiner, we answer this inquiry in the negative, we are forced to the conclusion that in his foreign policy Oliver, from want probably of sufficient training, failed to show his usual insight; but if his foreign policy was miscalculated there is really no part of his statesmanship which, if it be judged by a high standard, can be called successful. Energy, resolution, and knowledge of men, may make a man a powerful ruler, but for high statesmanship something further is required. The founder of new institutions must look to the future, and Oliver, with all his greatness, lacked foresight. If we are to adopt Mr. Gardiner's formula, and say that the greatness of the Protector lay in his being the most typical Englishman of all time, we must add that he shared one of the most marked of English defects—the incapacity for regarding anything but the requirements of the day.

Why has popular tradition painted Cromwell as a hypocrite?

Much may be due to the slanders of the Restoration—libertines will always deem piety to be hypocrisy; but it is folly to attribute lasting effects to malignity and calumny. It is the gravest of errors to imagine that the view taken of a man by his contemporaries can be wholly without foundation. If men of all classes and all parties came to distrust the Protector, we may be certain, not that he was a knave or a hypocrite, but that there was something in his character and career which naturally excited distrust. Nor if any one looks at Oliver's conduct dispassionately is it hard to see what this "something" was. He was a man who, beginning his life as a genuine religious enthusiast, became a successful and, we may fairly add, a not over-scrupulous statesman. To suppose that he was a hypocrite, or that his religious convictions were not genuine, is to misread human nature. It is absurd to fancy that the religious language to be found in his speeches did not express real feeling. Nothing is more unlikely than that the feelings of Cromwell's heart belied his religious profession. What, however, is pretty certain is not only that he became more and more interested in matters of state which led to the use of statecraft, but that he made his religious expressions part of his statesmanship. Policy and piety do not easily go hand in hand, and there is one danger to which a religious statesman is constantly exposed. He may act on higher principles than his opponents, but he is almost driven to the pretence of acting on principles of a more exalted character than those which he really follows. He deceives himself, but he deceives others also. No one can have a moment's doubt that Walpole's morality was of a far lower type than the morality of Cromwell. The Whig Minister was in the strictest sense incapable of understanding the religious yearnings of the Protector, but, just because of this difference, Walpole was the more honest man of the two. The Minister was a cynic; he took a low view of human nature, and made not the remotest effort to raise the tone of his generation. He acted more or less on the principle that every man had his price, and that the price could usually be expressed in pounds, shillings, and pence; but there was about him no touch of humbug; no one felt that he pretended to a conscientiousness which he did not possess. In dealing with Cromwell, on the other hand, no one ever felt sure, and to this day no one can feel sure, how far his action was guided by policy and how far by principle. We know, for example, that he wished to save Charles. We also know that he at last and suddenly adopted the views of enthusiasts who were convinced that justice demanded the death of Charles Stuart. Who shall say whether Cromwell was swayed by the dictates of immediate expediency, or whether he was carried off his feet by the contagious influence of a religious fanaticism with which in his heart he felt strong sympathy? This is an inquiry which no man can answer, and for the best of all reasons: it is an inquiry to which Oliver himself might well have hesitated to reply. A keen perception of the demands of the moment, righteous indignation at Charles's duplicity, the moral satisfaction of finding himself once more in harmony with the sentiment of the saints, may each and all have contributed to Cromwell's decision; and it was characteristic of the man to carry out at once with the utmost vigor the course of action which he had finally decided to adopt.

But though the mixture of politic calculation with religious fervor or fanaticism is not hypocrisy, it assuredly excited and ought to excite the suspicion of critics and associates. When we add to this that Cromwell, like every other revolutionary leader, suffered morally from the corrupting atmosphere of revolution, and that the religious fervor of his early life was clearly a good deal cooled by the varied experiences of his later career, we cease entirely to wonder that former friends, no less than ancient foes, failed to see how strong were to the last the Protector's religious convictions, and believed that astounding triumphs had been the reward of profound dissimulation. But here again it is fair to note that Mr. Gardiner's formula has an application which he does not himself give to it. Cromwell in his faults is the representative of his country. When foreign critics speak out freely the accusations which they bring against England, they charge the country with humbug or hypocrisy. Every Englishman, and perhaps most fair-minded Americans, will assert that the charge is unjust. What, however, are the circumstances which give it currency and plausibility? They are in substance that England in her foreign policy constantly professes to act on higher principles than those which govern the policy of other nations. This profession is by no means without solid foundation. No one, for example, who studies the history of the abolition of slavery can doubt that the abolitionists of England, as also the abolitionists of America, were really governed by hatred of iniquity. No one, again, can doubt that the belief in the benefits conferred by English administration upon Egypt tells for a good deal in the resolution of Englishmen, which is growing firmer and firmer every day, to keep a tight grip on the land they have occupied. But

* 'History of the Great Civil War,' vol. iii., p. 557.

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while this is true, it is also true that English philanthropy or benevolence is apt to coincide with the real or supposed interest of England, and that England does not always act up to her avowed principles. The cynicism of a statesman like Bismarck excites less distrust and condemnation than does the English avowal, though often perfectly sincere, of high-principled disinterestedness. Cromwell remains in his failings the type of English statesmanship.

BUCKLEY'S METHODISM IN THE UNITED STATES.

A History of Methodism in the United States. By James M. Buckley. In two volumes. Illustrated. New York: The Christian Literature Society. 1897.

The literary matter in these volumes is also published in one volume of 714 pages in a binding uniform with the other volumes of the "American Church History Series." The excess of 237 pages in these volumes over the one-volume edition is occasioned by the introduction of some 235 portraits and a few other illustrations. The portraits are very interesting, especially the "last-century faces," not all of them "fine"—some of them very homely and rugged—but much more indicative of force and character than those of the nineteenth-century bishops. Some of these, however, are delightful as examples of the typical ecclesiastical countenance, their smile as serenely self-sufficient as that of the Assyrian and Egyptian sculptures of great kings and conquerors.

It commonly happens with church histories that the initial are more interesting than the later stages. So far is Methodism from being an exception that it furnishes the rule with one of its most obvious examples. But, although Dr. Buckley devotes more than 100 pages to early English Methodism, they furnish but a brief and dry compendium of such elaborate histories as those of Stevens and Tyerman. Indeed, his entire work has too much of this character. Facts are set down "in disconnection dull and spiritless." There is a lack of grouping, and we pass from one thing to another with a suddenness that is often startling. There is, moreover, an absence of dramatic sympathy which is very curious. Here is a Methodist of the Methodists, and there is ten times more of the spirit of early Methodism in the pages of 'Adam Bede,' though George Eliot was an agnostic, than in Dr. Buckley's history. He should have been a good portrait-painter for a work so rich in personal interest. But Whitefield and the Wesleys, Coke and Asbury, and the other giants of those days, are bowed off the stage with the least possible characterization. Nor have we any clearer presentation of the doctrinal contents of Methodism, or of the differences between Wesley and Whitefield which were so threatening to the success of the whole business. Properly enough, the emphasis is placed upon the moral reformation involved in the development of Methodism. Wesley's celebrated "Minutes" are here very much in evidence. Another thing that is brought out very clearly is the primacy of Wesley. Louis XIV. was not more the State than Wesley was the Church. The sway of Hildebrand was not more absolute than his. Immensely suggestive, too, is the businesslike fashion in which a great emotional movement was made practical and efficient. It is astonishing how the fashion went everywhere with Methodism, and how quickly the American Methodists adopted it. It is less astonishing, however, because Asbury, as a man of business, was hardly inferior to Wesley.

If Dr. Buckley felt any temptation to be boastful in writing of the rise and growth of Methodism, he withstood it perfectly. An ecclesiastical history was never written more modestly or more truthfully. Where others have endeavored to disguise certain disagreeable facts, he has stripped off the disguise. A notable instance is furnished by Wesley's attitude towards the American Revolution. That attitude, as expressed in 'A Calm Address to Our American Colonies,' was the same as Dr. Johnson's in his famous 'Taxation No Tyranny.' The address was not inaptly described as "a bundle of Lilliputian shafts picked and stolen out of Dr. Johnson's pin-cushion." But Stevens, in his history of Methodism, wrote of Wesley's "frankly correcting himself and acknowledging the right of the colonies in their stern quarrel," and he convinced Bancroft of the truth of this statement and induced him to change what he had written. Yet Bancroft had written nothing but the truth, and it was Stevens who was in the wrong, as Dr. Buckley plainly shows. The letter on which Stevens relied was written before the 'Calm Address.' The wonder is that that address, together with the connection of the Methodists with the Church of England in America, was not fatal to the prospects of Methodism in this country. Asbury was driven into retirement, and the progress of the movement during the war and for some years after was very slow, especially as the Methodists, almost equally with the Quakers, were opposed to war, and so brought upon themselves some disrepute.

If Wesley's attitude towards American independence was unsound, he made great amends by his attitude towards slavery, in splendid contrast with Whitefield's base subserviency and complicity. (Whitefield's missionary labors in America are only briefly mentioned by Dr. Buckley, and their relation to incipient Methodism and to the other sects is not explained.) In their early dealings with slavery, the Methodists followed bravely Wesley's lead. The conference of 1780 required preachers holding slaves to set them free. In 1784 this action was followed up by a demand for the dismissal of preachers refusing to comply. The spirit of Coke, one of the superintendents sent over by Wesley, was precisely that of his chief. Asbury was more compliant. On his motion the conference of 1808 voted that "the section and rule on slavery be left out" of the Forms of Discipline provided for the South Carolina conference. The fact was that Methodism developed in the South much more rapidly than at the North. It was very slow to enter New England, where the reaction from the excesses of Whitefield and Edwards's "Great Awakening" was of long continuance.

Dr. Buckley's treatment of the relations of Methodism and slavery is throughout perfectly simple and straightforward. In his second volume he has three chapters which are wholly concerned with these matters. In the first of these we have an account of the abolitionist secession of the Wesleyan Connection under the lead of Orange Scott and La Roy Sunderland in 1842. This was a return to first principles which had been outraged in 1808 by the withdrawal of the prohibition of slaveholding by lay Methodists. The temper of those anti-slavery Methodists who were not ready to secede was much stiffened by the abolitionist secession. There was an inundation of anti-slavery petitions to the General Conference. But the Sumter gun of this disunion was the anti-slavery demand for the retirement of Bishop Andrews, who had married a slaveholding wife. There was a great debate which ended in the secession of the Southern Methodists, numbering 459,569 members and 1,519 travelling preachers. Henry Clay saw in this secession a menace to the dissolution of the Union, which his Compromise of 1850 did something to delay. The timidity of organized religion was manifested in the entire course of this controversy in the Methodist Church. The issue was forced upon the bishops by the people, in whom the anti-slavery spirit of Wesley still survived.

Dr. Buckley, before entering upon this task, had qualified himself for a courageous treatment of the emotional excesses of Methodism by the study of other similar phenomena in our own time. It is an interesting fact that these excesses, hysterical, cataleptic, and so on, attended the logical and argumentative preaching of Wesley much more than Whitefield's impassioned eloquence. There must still be many Methodists who will resent as wholly inadequate Dr. Buckley's account of these things as the result of "concentrated attention," and his depreciation of them as having no necessary or invariable connection with any moral change. But whatever of sympathy is lacking in his treatment of this matter, there is enough, yet not too much, when he comes to speak of "the typical itinerant." When we consider what the typical itinerant was, his meagre pay, at first about $60 a year, his constant journeyings, the hardships he endured, and the rebuffs which he encountered, his passionate enthusiasm and sincerity, we cease to wonder at the success that waited on his ministry, especially when we consider how often he was selected by Asbury for his work and energized and directed by Asbury's tireless will. After coming to America, Asbury "preached 16,500 sermons, ordained more than 4,000 preachers, travelled on horseback or in carriages more than 270,000 miles." Dr. Buckley asks, "Can his career be paralleled?" Wesley beat Asbury a good deal in the number of sermons, preaching 40,000 after he was thirty-six years old; "generally preaching at five in the morning; one of the most healthy exercises in the world," and travelling 225,000 miles.

Coke, Asbury's co-superintendent of the American Methodists, was a less simple character, suggesting some interesting psychological problems. One of his biographers writes that "he would have been a greater statesman if he had had fewer devices." One of his devices was to get himself made an Anglican missionary bishop of India, the English Wesleyans being slack in missionary enterprise, with the understanding that he would "return most fully into the bosom of the Established Church." Another of his devices (1799) was an elaborate scheme for the adoption of the English Methodists by the Established Church, and still another (1791), behind Asbury's back, had for its object the absorption of the American Methodists in the American Episcopal Church,

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The overtures were made to Bishop White. Dr. Buckley probably expected some "dissidence of [Methodist] dissent" when he wrote: "Had such a union been formed, it is certain that neither the Protestant Episcopal Church nor American Methodism would have been what it now is, and it is possible that something better than either might exist."

Only those who are entirely unacquainted with the relations of Methodism in its formative stage to the Church of England will find anything strange in Coke's various coquetries with her. Wesley prized a valid ordination so much that he availed himself of "a rather shadowy Greek prelate" to ordain some of his preachers. When, with Dr. Coke and Mr. Creighton, he ordained two elders for America, and made Coke and Asbury superintendents, he shuffled a good deal to save the appearance of consistency, while in fact he was acting upon a view of primitive episcopacy now generally accepted by the most eminent scholars. In America, Asbury's face was set as a flint against the administration of the ordinances by preachers who were not clergymen of the English Church. But for the Revolutionary War the English Church in America might have absorbed Wesley's Methodists, as the Presbyterians and Congregationalists did Whitefield's. But that war was not only a war of independence for the colonies, it was also a war of independence for the American Episcopal Church and for the American Methodists, separating the former from the Church of England and the latter from its English branch. But long after the power of George III. was broken in America, the hand of Wesley was heavy on his subjects on this side of the Alantic. Their moral laxity, at the present time, as compared with his ideals of temperance and amusement, "softness and needless self-indulgence," would have broken his great heart if he could have foreseen it from the summit of his years.

It is a mistaken idea that the growth of Methodism in America was steady and unimpeded once it got fairly under way. In 1796 there was a loss of nearly 3,000 members; a loss of 11,000 in this and the two preceding years. These losses were mainly owing to the secession of the Republican Methodists under the lead of a certain O'Kelly, to whom the new bishops seemed too much like the old king. His following soon broke up.

In Dr. Buckley's second volume, after the chapters on slavery, to which we have already referred, there are others in which the famous scandals of the Book Concern are overhauled, and various aspects of growth and change are briefly indicated and discussed. There are also chapters on the other "Branches of the Common Root," the African Methodist Episcopal Church, the Wesleyan Connection, and the Methodist Episcopal Church South. The Book Concern is an institution which sends its roots far down into the soil of primitive Methodism, so prominent a feature was Wesley's sale of his writings in the propagation of his religious opinions. Its sales, East and West, are now $2,000,000 yearly, and it distributes $125,000 yearly "to the necessity of saints." Several pages dealing with the educational development are purely external—giving a list of endowments and bequests and little more. Of these one of the most remarkable was that of Dr. Daniel Ayres, a heretic of the heretics, to the department of biology in Wesleyan University—"the best way," he said, "to kill off the old theology." One would gladly know how the old theology is faring among the Methodists of these last days; what changes, if any, it has undergone to meet the requirements of modern thought and science. But of these things we have no mention whatsoever.

Eye Spy: Afield with Nature among Flowers and Animate Things. By William Hamilton Gibson. Illustrated by the Author. Harper & Bros. 1897.

Familiar Features of the Roadside: The Flowers, Shrubs, Birds, and Insects. By F. Schuyler Mathews. D. Appleton & Co. 1897.

Memories of the Months: Being Pages from the Notebook of a Field-Naturalist and Antiquary, to wit, Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart., M. P. Edward Arnold. 1897.

Vivacious and even quiet popular records of natural-history observations possess a great fascination for the Teutonic race. Other races take pleasure in such records, but they do not seem to find in them the deep satisfaction which Germans, Scandinavians, and English-speaking peoples obtain therefrom. It may be that these latter have lived somewhat nearer to nature, and like to hear the story which charmed their ancestors well and often told. They seem never to tire of accounts of elves and fairies and giants, or, failing these, of the forests and meadows where the fairies might well be at home. The names of our common plants show how much of this fairy and folk-lore is still held in fond remembrance. When, therefore, one with sharp eyes, and keen ear, and a facile pen, and possibly a skilful brush, tells the story of any part of out-of-doors, he is sure of attentive listeners.

It may, perhaps, be true that a part of the charm comes from the humiliating fact that we all like to have our work done for us, and that it is pleasanter to read about the story of nature than to take the trouble to tell it to ourselves. One swinging in his shady hammock, under whispering trees, extracts deep pleasure from the perusal of the records of those who are keeping eyes and ears open in the discomfort of a tropical sun. We are spared the fatigue of actual travel and exposure; another is deftly taking the chestnuts out of the fire for us. And the pleasure is almost as great when one reads about the swamps and thickets and sandhills near home; the accounts are as fascinating as the stories of tropical adventure, provided, always, the account is not *too* instructive. There is one class of readers who get a still greater enjoyment out of such books, namely, those who know the woods and meadows, but who cannot, from lack of time or training, tell the story of the birds and flowers to suit themselves. They delight in the descriptions which others prepare; they appropriate the well-arranged material brought by others. There is, besides, a very large class, happily increasing, to whom such records of nature are guide-books to be tested on the spot. These latter take the score into the forest at daybreak and watch for a false note in the melodies and harmonies. The three latest guide-books are now in our hands. In some respects they are like their predecessors, but each has its own characteristics.

In Mr. Hamilton Gibson's early death, out-of-doors study in this country has sustained a serious loss. His eye, and ear, and hand were always truthful, and this gave him confidence to make wide excursions even into the fields which might be claimed by specialists. But there was, with this confidence, a modesty which led every specialist to welcome him as a friend, and not as a rash intruder. The present book, 'Eye Spy,' is somewhat like the earlier and larger one, which has delighted innumerable readers, 'Bright Eyes.' First of all, it is a sympathetic book; the author, who was at once the writer and draughtsman, always alert, cannot let a single thing worth mentioning escape the telling, and the telling is like a confidential talk among intimate friends about what certain other intimate friends have been doing. A charitable construction is put upon everything, and so the story runs along without a hint of anything unpleasant. Like many posthumous books, the pages contain a few errors which the author, if here, would have corrected. For instance, on page 139 we have Polygaric, where Mr. Gibson would have said Agaric. He would not have placed Sprengel's discovery as far back as 1735 (p. 166), and said on page 167, "It remained for Darwin, seventy years later, to interpret the problem," for at that time Darwin was minus four years old. But it is ungracious to point out errors in proof-reading or editing. Such errors as exist will not prove very misleading to those who delight in the beautifully printed pages, the exquisite delineations, and the story of nature told with an irresistible charm. Mr. Gibson was not spoiled by the schools; he was his own teacher in what was best, and those who have the task of training amateur naturalists should see well to it that they catch if they can the secret of his success in teaching himself. His enthusiasm was never chilled, nor, on the other hand, did it carry him to mawkish sentimentalism. Those of us who had the pleasure of knowing him remember the attractiveness of his enthusiasm—he carried us duller ones along with him whether we would or not; and in his books he does this with all his readers. Countless readers will, with those who knew him personally, treasure these last leaves taken from his portfolio, and express the hope that all of his careful sketches may be given to the public in some permanent form.

Mr. Mathews, whose work hitherto is more or less known to our readers, has given us a faithful guidebook for our roadsides. He does not confine himself strictly to the space between the fences, but he assumes that in most cases the fences are constructively down; and so he takes us on short and very attractive walks by most devious paths, and his book is all the better for it. Birds, flowers, and insects are faithfully considered and described in untechnical language, the whole brought into proper relations with their surroundings. His account can be unhesitatingly commended for summer strolls.

Maxwell's book is rather less limited in its scope than either of the two American works just noticed. More or less antiquarian lore, and here and there a bit of rural economy, a hint of fishing, and so on, carry us a little further afield than when we are guided by Gibson or Mathews. The author says in the preface that his notebooks were slipshod, and this may well be; but, so far as a careful reading has shown, they are slip-

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shod for ease of progression, and this in the country is not a fault. Sir Herbert has made his notes on the spot, and hence, though with an appearance of carelessness, they are accurate. And, finally, we may say that the three books taken as the heading for this notice are all laid down on out-of-door lines, and were not first drawn up in a windowless library. We congratulate our readers on the gratification they will have as they add these books to the scores of excellent ones which have preceded them from Walton's time, or even long before, down. The list is a long one, and none of the works can be spared.

A Manual of Aesopic Fable Literature: A First Book of Reference for the Period ending A. D. 1500. [Romance and Other Studies, by G. C. Keidel, Ph.D., Assistant in Romance Languages in the Johns Hopkins University. Number Two. First Fascicule.] Baltimore.

Dr. Keidel's introduction gives a brief statement of the scope of his study and a description of three facsimiles of works whose appearance here is entirely irrelevant. There is no systematic account of the Aesopic Fable, and the fascicule consists of lists of titles relating to the following topics: "History of Aesopic Fable Literature," "History of Related Subjects," "History of Special Fields of Fable Literature," "Definition of Fable," "History of Single Fables," "Tables of Fable Literature," and "Incunabula." The author states that the Aesopic Fable is "in the domain of his habitual studies," but to judge by his present performance he is astonishingly ignorant of the field. A glance at the section "Volkskunde" in the Bibliography of the *Germania*, or at the *Jahresbericht über die Erscheinungen auf dem Gebiete der Germanischen Philologie*, or at the indexes of the great folk-lore journals, will show how lamentably incomplete are the lists mentioned above. For example, Dr. Keidel mentions but six histories of single fables: one by himself in the *Zeitschrift für Vergleichende Litteraturgeschichte*, an anonymous one in *Harper's Magazine*, and one in Bédier's *Fabliaux*, leaving but three independent works. Surely, Dr. Keidel does not suppose that these are all, and yet he says, p. xiii: "With the complete list of books on Fable Literature here cited before him, any student may approach the subject for serious study without great misgivings as to a lack of the necessary material for general investigations, etc." In the list of definitions of Fable the height of absurdity is reached by the citation of "Webster, *International Dictionary*, *s. v.* fable and apologue."

The author has bestowed great pains on the bibliographical details of his work, with some curious results. In citing the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, he gives not only the size, "8vo, 1,272 pp.," but the wholly useless: "Bureau de la Revue des Deux Mondes, 20 Rue Saint-Benoît." In citing Hervieux, 'Les Fabulistes Latins,' he gives five separate entries for the five volumes, and under every one we have: "Librairie de Firmin-Didot et Cie., 56 Rue Jacob." The author says he has made generous use of bold-faced type, and "hopes it will, with the numerous Reference Lists appended, make the present Manual one of easy and rapid reference—an essential characteristic of such a work only too often overlooked by compilers." How generous the author has been is shown on pp. 58-60, where may be found 84 successive lines of bold-faced type conveying—the *number of leaves* in the various editions of the incunabula cited in an earlier part of the work! It is, however, upon the list of incunabula that Dr. Keidel has expended most of his labor. It might be criticised for its contents, *e. g.*, if Vincent of Beauvais is included, so should other mediæval works containing fables be. But there are more serious faults. First, as to arrangement: the works are given in the supposed order of printing, but about a third are merely approximate dates, and why make such an uncertain matter the basis of tabulation? In consequence of this the same work is entered several times because different dates are assigned by different authorities. The only authorities cited in the list of 178 incunabula are: Hervieux, 'Les Fabulistes Latins,' Brunet's 'Manuel,' and the British Museum Catalogue, *s. v. Aesop*. The list of incunabula is followed by several reference lists, most of which are entirely out of place. It is impossible to see why the number of leaves of the folio and quarto editions should be given in a separate list, and that, too, as has been said, in the most prominent type. The list of "Cities Where Preserved" duplicates the list of "Extant Copies," and the "Alphabetical List of Sales and Catalogues" and the separate list of "Prices Brought" are of no practical use to the student of Aesopic literature.

It is to be regretted that Dr. Keidel has lavished so much labor to so little purpose. He seems to have printed the contents of his notebooks, and has produced a work of small value to students, and which, it is no exaggeration to say, might have been condensed into a dozen pages.

Sketches of Travel in Normandy and Maine. By Edward A. Freeman. With illustrations from drawings by the Author, and a preface by W. H. Hutton, B.D., Fellow and Tutor of St. John's College, Oxford. Macmillan. 1897. $2.50.

The historian Freeman was always greatly interested in geography, in topography, and in buildings, as, indeed, an historian ought to be. His possession of considerable means enabled him to travel much, and he used his journeys to excellent advantage by constant and close study of the localities in which his historical interest was centred. His many volumes of historical essays show this strong interest in ancient cities and in ancient structures, and, besides those, there are detached essays on purely architectural subjects, and several volumes devoted almost exclusively to towns and the buildings which compose them. 'Historical and Architectural Sketches, Chiefly Italian,' appeared in 1876, and 'Sketches from the Subject and the Neighbor-Lands of Venice' appeared in 1881, and now a third volume appears, uniform in size with the others, and worthy to be their companion. Each of the three volumes is illustrated by very singular drawings, unskilful quite beyond the power of words to express their unskilfulness; but also, we think, erroneous—exactly as a bad drawing of a flower or bush is erroneous—erroneous in the sense of giving a false idea of the object represented. Mr. Freeman always had the notion that a simple, straightforward, well-meant drawing of a piece of architecture ought to carry it with the student. That he had seen the building with his own eyes and had set down on paper just what he saw, was enough, he seems to have thought, to show to the reader also what he, the writer, had seen. How completely a bad drawing of a good building can misrepresent that building was unsuspected by him.

The same oversight, or error, marks the literary treatment of architecture in the books under consideration. Mr. Freeman is often mentioned as a writer on architecture whose words are of weight, but it must be stated plainly that these words are of weight only as suggestions as to date and origin, and that to the better informed student. Nowhere in Mr. Freeman's work is there any indication that he was interested in construction, or that he knew what construction was, or that architectural styles depend upon it; nor is architectural sculpture of interest to him except as he thinks, or fancies, that such and such a piece of carving must have been done at the order of some historical personage in whom, for the moment, he is interested. This architectural criticism is inconceivably insular, and he compares Continental work with English to the disadvantage of the former in a most amusing way. More than almost any other writer that we can name he misunderstands the artistic purpose in fine ancient buildings, and ignores the important to insist upon the trivial.

It is because long essays by Mr. Freeman are printed as prefatory or explanatory notices to plates from drawings by others, and because he is ranked seriously among writers on architecture, that it has seemed necessary to make these remarks. The book before us cannot be praised as a treatise on architecture. As an assistant to the guide-books, as an additional and fuller guide-book for the region which it covers, it must be praised and should be freely used, in spite of the extraordinary blunder on p. 204, where we are told that the great south spire of Chartres is modern and of iron, although "it very well reproduces the outline of the elder one of wood."

Papers and Notes on the Genesis of the Diamond. By the late Henry Carvill Lewis. Edited by Prof. T. G. Bonney. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

Abstracts of these interesting papers appeared about ten years ago, but a singularly unhappy fate has attended the production of the complete texts. The talented young geologist who wrote them, and whose work on the 'Glacial Geology of Great Britain' was reviewed in these columns in 1895, died in 1888, committing his manuscript to George H. Williams, whom also his colleagues have to lament. The manuscripts were then committed to Prof. Bonney.

In his preface the editor announces as Mr. Lewis's view of the genesis of the diamond that it is due to "the action of an extremely basic rock upon carbonaceous material." As the editor must have read the papers, and these are clear in their statements, one can only say that Mr. Bonney's representation is singularly misleading. Lewis never saw the Kimberley mines, but examined suites of specimens with most painstaking care, and his conclusions are in the main geologically correct. The mines are volcanic "necks," or the conduits of ancient volcanoes, filled for the most part with an igneous

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breccia which arose from the breaking up of solid lava crusts in liquid lava. With the breccia are mingled fragments of wall rock. Much of the wall rock is a bituminous shale, and some geologists have ascribed the formation of the diamonds to the action of the igneous rock on this material. Not so Lewis, who wrote: "The diamonds are as much a part of the Kimberley rock as biotite, garnet, titanic and chromic iron, and perovskite, and, like these minerals, may be considered a rock ingredient." He also points to the abundance of minute, almost microscopic, crystals of black diamond as evidence that these were not enclosures brought up from some other matrix, such as gneiss or itacolumite. The shale, he truly says, is most plentiful near the top of the Kimberley mine, and less frequent in the deeper portions; while the diamonds "continue just as abundant, if not more so, the deeper the mines are explored." They are, according to Lewis, never found in, or especially associated with, the foreign inclusions; and this is correct. As to the origin of the carbon, Lewis does not commit himself.

Lewis went astray in his interpretation of the fractured diamonds of these deposits. Some of the gems go to pieces spontaneously after they have been extracted; these specimens have, as a rule, a peculiar brownish color, and are readily distinguished by experts. The cause of the disintegration is very probably included gas. The fragments of diamonds found in the rock itself are rarely if ever of this character, nor do they present any other peculiarity. They are in all respects comparable with the broken porphyritic crystals of other minerals which Lewis observed in the rock, and all these fractures are referable to the moment of explosive expulsion of the lava from its deep-seated source. Such fracturing is common in igneous rocks.

These papers give full attention to the mineralogical composition of the rock which Lewis named Kimberlite. It is chiefly composed of olivine and contains no feldspar. It closely resembles some stony meteorites. Similar rocks are found in the United States, but the diamond has been detected in its original matrix only in the South African deposits.

Year-Books of the Reign of King Edward the Third. Year XVI. (First Part). Edited and translated by Luke Owen Pike. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode. Pp. c, 338.

An interval of some five years and a half separates the publication of this volume and that of the Year-Books of 15 Edward III. The delay has not been the editor's fault, and we are now assured that the publication of these excellent volumes will proceed "not less rapidly, at any rate, than in earlier years." Not only is the thorough and scholarly method of editing, which Mr. Pike introduced, to be continued, but a Calendar of the Plea Rolls of the Common Bench is to be published, "including all the cases which reached final judgment or issue." This will be of great service to legal scholars.

Much the greater part of Mr. Pike's learned "Introduction" is devoted to the consideration of a case relating to a charter of Edward III. to the burgesses of Wells, and to the history of that borough. This has less interest for us than for English scholars; but still the students of the subject of corporations will find it valuable. "It was really about the reign of Edward III. . . . that the idea of the lay corporation, the lay *persona ficta* (as now understood), was painfully elaborated." Those who have visited the beautiful city of Wells will be interested in this passage: "They [the burgesses of Wells] had wished to have their town walled, embattled, and moated. A little before this time [1342] the Bishop of Bath and Wells (Ralph of Shrewsbury) had applied for a license to fortify his own palace with wall and battlements and turrets; and he succeeded where they failed. His battlements still remain, with a moat around them, as a monument of this memorable struggle of the fourteenth century."

At p. xxii Mr. Pike has an interesting passage on *peasants*, "a word which does not often occur in the Year-Books." A peasant, he says, is etymologically an inhabitant of the country (*pays* or *pais*). But a freeholder could not be a peasant; and so when an issue was to be tried by the country (*patria, pais*), the word *pais* did duty for a word (*patria*) with which it had no etymological connection; being itself derived from *pagus* or *pagensis*. And so an issue to be tried by the *pais* could not be tried by the *paisans*, because they were not free and lawful men.

At p. 290, the Latin record is preserved of a case involving the trial of a jury by an attaint jury of twenty-four. Three of the original jury were dead.

It is interesting to see the appearance in 1342 of names with which we are now familiar. The manors of Wassyntone and of Seggewyke, in Sussex, and the names of Henry de Walcote, Thomas de Musegrove, Thoms Doraunt, John Del Feld, Ranf de Bethum, or, as it is variously spelled, Bethun and Bethon (meaning Beetham in Westmorland), and Hugh de Chew, are among those which should interest many of our readers.

In a strictly legal point of view, this volume has less interest than most of its predecessors.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, Jessie M. A Study of English Words. American Book Co. 40c.
Bisland, Elizabeth. Old Greenwich. [Papers on Historic New York.] Putnams. 10c.
Boswell, James. The Life of Samuel Johnson. [Temple Classics.] Vol. I. London: Dent; New York. Macmillan. 50c.
Brooks, Phillips. Best Methods of Promoting Spiritual Life. Whittaker. 50c.
Cain, William. Maximum Stresses in Framed Bridges. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50c.
Caine, Hall. The Christian. Appletons. $1.50.
Constance, Olive. Opals. John Lane. $1.25.
Cornwell, W. C. Sound-Money Monographs. Putnams. $1.
Deschamps, Gaston. La Vie et les Livres. 4ième Série. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Hall, Prof. W. S. Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.25.
Hempl, Prof. George. German Orthography and Phonology. A Treatise with a Word-List. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.10.
Hotchkiss, C. C. A Colonial Free-Lance. Appletons. $1.
Jaeger, Dr. Gustav. Problems of Nature: Researches and Discoveries. Brentanos. $1.50.
Kipling, Rudyard. The Second Jungle Book. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Lewis, A. H. Wolfville. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
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